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DIAGNOSTIC

AND

THERAPEUTIC TECHNIC

A Manual of Practical Procedures Employed in Diagnosis and Treatment

BY

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WITH 815 ILLUSTRATIONS, MOSTLY ORIGINAL

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To my Father

PRINCE A. MORROW, M. D.

this book

is affectionately dedicated

PREFACE

In this volume the writer has endeavored to bring together and arrange in a manner easily accessible for reference a large number of procedures employed in diagnosis and treatment. The book has been given the comprehensive title "Diagnostic and Therapeutic Technic." The scope of the work, however, can be best appreciated by consulting the table of contents on page 9.

While some of the methods herein detailed belong essentially to the domain of the specialist, the majority are the every-day practical procedures which the hospital interne or the general practitioner may at any time be called upon to perform. So far as the writer is aware there is no single book to which one may turn for information along these lines. Text-books of the present day, treating exhaustively as they do of the larger problems of medicine and surgery, must of necessity, if they are to be kept within reasonable limits, omit or else describe in a most condensed manner these so-called minor procedures. If the reader desires fuller and more detailed information it not infrequently happens that it is necessary for him to consult a number of works before he obtains all the desired information. To supply such a want is the object of this book.

The plan of the work comprises, first, a description of certain general diagnostic and therapeutic methods and, second, a description of those measures employed in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases affecting special regions and organs of the body. Operative methods have been omitted as far as possible, only those having been considered which are required in emergencies or which form a necessary part of some of the measures described. Each procedure has been given in detail, leaving nothing to the reader's imagination. For this reason, and that each section might be complete in itself without referring the reader to other portions of the text, some unavoidable repetition occurs.

All important steps have been illustrated so that the reader may grasp at a glance the technic of the various procedures, no expense having been spared in this direction. Nearly all the illustrations are line drawings made by Mr. John V. Alteneder, head of the W. B.

Saunders' art department, from photographs under the author's supervision. The excellence and high character of his work has done much to elucidate the text. In instances where illustrations from other sources have been utilized due credit has been given.

I desire here to express my heartiest thanks to my father, Dr. Prince A. Morrow, and to Drs. T. J. Abbott, J. M. Lynch, J. H. Potter, and J. F. McCarthy for many valuable suggestions and criticisms, and to others who have assisted me in various ways in the preparation of the manuscript.

My thanks are also due the Kny-Scheerer Co., of New York, for having kindly furnished many of the instruments from which drawings have been made.

A. S. M.

New York City,
February, 1911.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I.

PAGE

The Administration of General Anesthetics . . . 17
Preparations of the patient for general anesthesia . . . 18
Stages of anesthesia . . . 22
Ether anesthesia . . . 24
Chloroform anesthesia . . . 34
Nitrous oxid anesthesia . . . 39
Nitrous oxid and oxygen anesthesia . . . 44
Nitrous oxid and ether sequence . . . 44
Ethyl chlorid anesthesia . . . 46
Anesthetic mixtures . . . 49
Intubation anesthesia . . . 50
Anesthesia through a tracheal opening . . . 52
Rectal anesthesia . . . 53
Scopolamin-morphin anesthesia . . . 55
Accidents during anesthesia and their treatment . . . 56
After-effects of anesthetics . . . 62
After-treatment of cases of general anesthesia . . . 64

CHAPTER II.

Local Anesthesia . . . 66
Advantages and disadvantages of local anesthesia . . . 67
Methods of producing local anesthesia . . . 70
Preparations of the patient for local anesthesia . . . 70
Drugs employed for local anesthesia . . . 71
Preparation of the anesthetic solution . . . 72
Conduction of an operation under local anesthesia . . . 73
Local anesthesia by cold . . . 75
Surface application of anesthetic drugs . . . 75
Infiltration anesthesia . . . 76
Endo- and perineural infiltration . . . 81
Practical application of infiltration, endo- and perineural methods of anesthesia to special localities . . . 83
Bier's venous anesthesia . . . 95
Arterial anesthesia . . . 98
Spinal anesthesia . . . 99

CHAPTER III.

Sphygmomanometry . . . 106
Normal blood pressure . . . 106

PAGE

Instruments for estimating blood pressure 107
Technic of estimating blood pressure 110
Variations of blood pressure in disease 111

CHAPTER IV.

Transfusion of Blood 114
Indications and contraindications 115
Hemolysis 116
Methods of performing transfusion 116
Selection of the donor 118
Technic by Crile's method 119
Brewer's method 122
Hartwell's method 122
Levin's method 123
Elsberg's method 123
Technic by Carrel's suture 124

CHAPTER V.

Infusions of Physiological Salt Solution 127
Indications 127
Preparation of normal salt solution 128
Artificial sera for infusions 129
Intravenous infusion 130
Intraarterial infusion 137
Hypodermoclysis 140
Rectal infusion 143

CHAPTER VI.

Hypodermic and Intramuscular Injection of Drugs 144
Administration of Diphtheria Antitoxin 149
Vaccination 153
Acupuncture 159
Venesection 161
Scarification 166
Subcutaneous Drainage for Edema 168
Cupping 170
Leeching 174

CHAPTER VII.

Bier's Hyperemic Treatment 177
Passive hyperemia 177
Effects of hyperemia 178
Indications 180
General principles underlying hyperemic treatment 181
Passive hyperemia by means of constricting bands 183
Passive hyperemia by means of suction cups 188
Active hyperemia 194

CHAPTER VIII.

PAGE

Collection and Preservation of Pathological Material 199
Method of making smear preparations for microscopical examination 199
Method of inoculating culture tubes 207
Collection of discharges and secretions for bacteriological examination 210
Collection of blood for microscopical examination 217
Collection of blood for bacteriological examination 222
Collection of sputum 224
Collection of urine 224
Collection of stomach contents 226
Collection of feces 226
Removal of a fragment of solid tissue for examination 226

CHAPTER IX.

Exploratory Punctures 230
Exploratory punctures in general 230
Exploratory puncture of the pleura 233
Exploratory puncture of the lung 237
Exploratory puncture of the pericardium 238
Exploratory puncture of the peritoneal cavity 240
Exploratory puncture of the liver 241
Exploratory puncture of the spleen 242
Exploratory puncture of the kidneys 243
Exploratory puncture of joints 244
Spinal puncture 246
Spinal puncture as a means of administering antitoxic sera 253

CHAPTER X.

Aspirations 254
Aspiration of the pleural cavity 254
Aspiration of the pericardium 263
Aspiration of the abdomen for ascites 265
Aspiration of the tunica vaginalis 270
Aspiration of the bladder 272

CHAPTER XI.

The Nose and Accessory Sinuses 273
Anatomic considerations 273
Diagnostic methods 278
Rhinoscopy 278
Inspection of the nasopharynx by means of Hays' pharyngoscope 286
Palpation by the probe 288
Digital palpation of the nasopharynx 291
Transillumination of the accessory sinuses 292
Skiagraphy 294
Therapeutic measures 294

PAGE

Nasal douching 294
The nasal syringe 297
The nasal spray 299
Direct application of remedies 301
Insufflations 303
Lavage of the accessory sinuses 305
Passive hyperemia in diseases of the nose and accessory sinuses 311
Tamponing the nose for the control of hemorrhage 312

CHAPTER XII.

The Ear 317
Anatomic considerations 317
Diagnostic methods 321
Direct inspection 323
Otoscopy 324
Determination of the mobility of the drum membrane 328
Hearing tests 329
Inflation of the middle ear for diagnosis 332
Therapeutic measures 339
The ear syringe 339
Instillations 342
Application of caustics 344
Inflation of the middle ear for therapeutic purposes 345
Inflation with medicated vapors 345
Injection of solutions into the Eustachian tubes 346
The Eustachian bougie 347
Massage of the drum membrane 348
Incision of the drum membrane 349

CHAPTER XIII.

The Larynx and Trachea 353
Anatomic considerations 353
Diagnostic methods 357
Laryngoscopy and tracheoscopy 357
Direct laryngoscopy 364
Autoscopy 367
Direct tracheo-bronchoscopy 367
Palpation by the probe 374
Skiagraphy 375
Therapeutic measures 375
The laryngeal spray 375
Direct application of remedies 377
Insufflations 379
Steam inhalations 380
Dry inhalations 383
Intubation 383
Tracheotomy 392

CHAPTER XIV.

PAGE

The Esophagus . . . 403
Anatomic considerations . . . 403
Diagnostic methods . . . 404
Auscultation . . . 405
Percussion . . . 405
Palpation . . . 405
Examination by sounds and bougies . . . 405
Esophagoscopy . . . 412
Skiagraphy . . . 416
Therapeutic measures . . . 416
Lavage of the esophagus . . . 416
Dilatation of esophageal strictures by the bougie . . . 418
Intubation of the esophagus . . . 423

CHAPTER XV.

The Stomach . . . 427
Anatomic considerations . . . 427
Diagnostic methods . . . 428
Inspection . . . 430
Palpation . . . 432
Percussion . . . 435
Auscultation . . . 436
Inflation of the stomach . . . 437
Extraction of stomach contents for examination . . . 440
Test of motor function . . . 447
Test of absorption power . . . 448
Gastrodiaphany . . . 448
Gastroscopy . . . 450
Skiagraphy . . . 456
Exploratory laparotomy . . . 456
Therapeutic measures . . . 457
Lavage of the stomach . . . 457
The stomach douche . . . 462
Gavage . . . 465
Massage . . . 468
Electrotherapy . . . 470

CHAPTER XVI.

The Rectum and Colon . . . 474
Anatomic considerations . . . 474
Diagnostic methods . . . 477
Inspection . . . 479
Palpation by the finger . . . 480
Manual palpation . . . 482
Examination by the speculum or proctoscope . . . 483
Examination by sounds and bougies . . . 490
Examination by the bougie à boule . . . 491
Examination by the probe . . . 492
Inflation of the colon . . . 493

PAGE

Therapeutic measures . . . 496
Enemata . . . 496
Enteroclysis . . . 501
Saline rectal infusion . . . 508
Continuous proctoclysis . . . 510
Nutrient enemata . . . 514
Injection of fluids or air into the bowel in intussusception . . . 517
Dilatation of rectal strictures by the bougie . . . 519
Colonic massage . . . 522
Auto-massage . . . 524
Application of electricity to the rectum and colon . . . 524

CHAPTER XVII.

The Urethra and Prostate . . . 527
Anatomic considerations . . . 527
Diagnostic methods . . . 531
Glass tests for locating urethral pus . . . 532
Injection test for locating urethral pus . . . 534
Inspection . . . 534
Palpation . . . 535
Examination by sounds and bougies . . . 538
Examination by the bougie à boule . . . 546
Urethrometry . . . 549
Estimation of the urethral length . . . 550
Urethroscopy in the male . . . 551
Urethroscopy in the female . . . 558
Therapeutic measures . . . 560
Urethral injections . . . 560
Irrigations of the urethra . . . 564
Instillations . . . 568
Application of ointments . . . 571
Urethroscopic treatment . . . 572
Direct application of cold to the urethra . . . 575
Prostatic massage . . . 576
Meatotomy . . . 578
Treatment of strictures by gradual dilatation . . . 579
Treatment of strictures by continuous dilatation . . . 590

CHAPTER XVIII.

The Bladder . . . 593
Anatomic considerations . . . 593
Diagnostic methods . . . 595
Urinalysis . . . 596
Inspection . . . 601
Percussion . . . 601
Palpation . . . 602
Sounding for stone . . . 604
Test of bladder capacity . . . 607
Estimation of residual urine . . . 609
Test for absorption from the bladder . . . 609

PAGE

Cystoscopy in the male . . . 610
Cystoscopy in the female . . . 615
Skiagraphy . . . 620
Therapeutic measures . . . 620
Irrigations . . . 620
Auto-irrigations . . . 624
Instillations . . . 626
Cystoscopic treatment . . . 627
Catheterization in the male . . . 628
Catheterization in the female . . . 635
Continuous catheterization . . . 636
Aspiration of the bladder . . . 639

CHAPTER XIX.

The Kidneys and Ureters . . . 642
Anatomic considerations . . . 642
Diagnostic methods . . . 645
Inspection . . . 645
Palpation of the kidney . . . 646
Palpation of the ureters . . . 648
Percussion . . . 650
Urinalysis . . . 651
Catheterization of the ureters in the male . . . 652
Catheterization of the ureters in the female . . . 661
Segregation of urine . . . 667
Determination of the functional capacity of the kidneys . . . 671
Skiagraphy . . . 674
Exploratory incision . . . 675
Therapeutic measures . . . 675
Medication of the renal pelvis and ureters . . . 675
Dilatation of ureteral strictures . . . 677

CHAPTER XX.

The Female Generative Organs . . . 679
Anatomic considerations . . . 679
Diagnostic methods . . . 681
I. Examination of the abdomen.
Inspection . . . 686
Palpation . . . 687
Percussion . . . 689
Auscultation . . . 691
Mensuration . . . 691
II. Examination of the pelvic organs.
Inspection . . . 692
Examination of discharges . . . 693
Digital palpation . . . 694
Bimanual palpation . . . 696
Examination by means of specula . . . 703
Sounding the uterus . . . 708
Digital palpation of the uterine cavity . . . 710

PAGE

Examination of sections and scrapings from the uterus 712
Exploratory vaginal incision 712
Therapeutic measures 715
Vaginal irrigations 715
Local applications to the vagina and cervix 718
Application of powders to the vagina 719
Vaginal tampons 719
Intrauterine douche 723
Intrauterine applications 727
Tamponing the uterus 729
Bier's hyperemic treatment in gynecology 732
Pelvic massage 733
Scarification of the cervix 734
Pessary therapy 735
Dilatation of the cervix 746
Curettage 751
INDEX 757

Diagnostic and Therapeutic Technic.

CHAPTER I.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF GENERAL ANESTHETICS.

The term anesthesia denotes a condition of insensibility to pain and an anesthetic is any agent which produces such a condition. Anesthetics are divided into general and local. General anesthetics are inhaled as gaseous vapors and enter the circulation through the alveoli of the lungs, whence they are carried to all the tissues and organs of the body, including the central nervous system, producing loss of consciousness, abolition of pain, and muscular relaxation. The drugs most used for this purpose are ether, chloroform, nitrous oxid gas, and ethyl chlorid administered separately, in sequence, or in combination with one another.

The choice of the anesthetic agent and the decision as to the method of its administration are questions of vital importance. Under any general anesthetic the patient is brought practically to the border-line between life and death, and, in many cases, the life of the patient depends, in the first place, upon the selection of the anesthetic, and, in the second place, upon the way in which it is administered. While the safety of the patient should always be the first consideration and the main guide in the choice of the anesthetic, it is unfortunately impossible to lay down any hard and fast rules. Each case must be studied separately, and the anesthetic chosen that is best suited to that particular case. According to statistics, the mortality following the administration of the different anesthetics is about as follows:

Nitrous oxid,	1 in 100,000
Ether,	1 in 16,000
Ethyl chlorid,	1 in 4,500
Chloroform,	1 in 3,000

Statistics, however, are not of absolute value as a guide. The production of narcosis with the same anesthetic under all conditions,

even though the particular agent chosen were absolutely safe, would certainly be unjustifiable. An anesthetic that could be used with safety under some conditions would be a menace to life under others. The condition of the patient, the nature of the operation, the anesthetist, and the operator himself are all factors that enter into consideration. Furthermore, in estimating the relative safety of the different anesthetics, one must consider not only the immediate dangers that may arise, but also the more remote toxic effects that frequently do not appear until some time later. No general rules will be laid down at this time as to the selection of the anesthetic, but in considering each agent an attempt will be made to indicate the cases for which it is best suited.

Preparations for Anesthesia and Precautions.—Certain precautions are necessary before the administration of a general anesthetic. Experience teaches that the patient takes an anesthetic better if he be placed upon a light but nutritious diet for several days before operation, and the bowels be properly regulated. In some special cases it may be necessary to subject the patient to a very careful régime, beginning even some weeks before operation in order to put him in the best possible condition. In other cases where only a light anesthesia—as with nitrous oxid—is required, but little preparation will be necessary.

Care of the Bowels.—When possible, the intestinal canal should always be emptied a number of hours before anesthetization. The usual custom is to give a purge, consisting of castor oil, calomel, compound licorice powder, or magnesium sulphate, the night before the operation, followed by a soapsuds enema in the morning. Often, however, the nature of the operation or lack of time does not permit of the administration of cathartics. In such cases, a purgative enema alone is relied upon.

Diet.—The diet for twenty-four hours before the operation should be of an easily digestible character, and should be taken in small amounts to prevent overloading the alimentary canal. If the operation is set for early in the morning, no food should be given after a light supper the previous night; if it is fixed for the afternoon, a very light breakfast may be taken, not later than 8 A. M. A feeling of faintness or weakness may necessitate the giving of a cup of hot broth or beef tea even later than this in some cases, but it should be a general rule never to give any food by mouth within three hours of the time for anesthesia, since, if the stomach is not empty at the time of operation, vomiting is almost sure to occur, adding not only to the danger of the anesthetic, but to the subsequent distress of the patient. In some

cases of special gravity on account of shock or marked feebleness, a nutrient enema, with the addition of whisky or brandy, may be given half an hour before the anesthesia is commenced.

In an emergency, lavage of the stomach may be carried out when a full meal has been taken shortly before. Preliminary washing out of the stomach will be required when that organ is the seat of operation; it should also be practised if a general anesthetic is to be administered when intestinal obstruction with vomiting is present, for, in such cases, patients have been known to fairly drown from the contents of the stomach suddenly pouring out under the relaxation of the anesthetic. To avoid undue excitement and possible collapse, the lavage may be performed, if desired, just as the patient is under complete anesthesia.

Preparation of the Mouth, Teeth, Etc.—Preparation of the nose, mouth, and teeth lessens the dangers of aspiration pneumonia and septic bronchitis. As a rule, cleansing the nose and mouth with an antiseptic solution and thoroughly brushing the teeth is sufficient, but, in some instances, the neglect of the teeth results in a very foul and septic condition, necessitating systematic treatment for several days before administration of the anesthetic is safe.

The Use of Morphin.—A good night's rest does much to fortify the patient and put him in the best possible condition for the operation. With some patients simply a rub-down with alcohol at bedtime suffices to induce sleep; in others, especially if nervous, the administration of trional or the bromids is indicated. Many surgeons administer morphin hypodermically before anesthesia. In some cases this is of advantage, shortening the stage of excitement and necessitating less of the anesthetic to maintain insensibility, but it should not be a routine practice. In highly excitable, vigorous, alcoholic individuals it is of distinct advantage. With its use, however, it is necessary to maintain lighter anesthesia than without it. The chief objection to morphin is that it depresses respiration and, by its action upon the pupils, may mask symptoms of overnarcosis; furthermore, it delays the awakening from the anesthesia. In children or the very old it must be used with caution. Any condition producing embarrassed or obstructed respiration is a contraindication as is, of course, any idiosyncrasy against the drug. It should not be given to very weak subjects or to those in stupor.

Physical Examination.—A thorough physical examination should be made in all cases as a routine preliminary to general anesthesia, for exact knowledge as to the state of health is essential to an intelligent

selection of the anesthetic and its safe administration. Such an examination has a good moral effect upon the patient, and, if assurance can be given that nothing abnormal can be discovered, it does much to allay the natural fear and timidity of a nervous individual. This examination should be made, when possible, before the day of operation, so that, if the condition of the patient demands it, the operation may be postponed without subjecting the patient to unnecessary preparations. In the presence of acute bronchitis or coryza, a postponement of the anesthesia is advisable. Chronic bronchitis, however, is sometimes improved by an anesthetic. Heart disease, with good compensation, is not a contraindication to general anesthesia.

The urine should always be examined if the case is such that time allows, noting the total amount for twenty-four hours, the specific gravity, and the amount of urea, and making tests for albumin, sugar, etc., as well as a microscopical examination for casts. The quantity of urea eliminated within twenty-four hours is especially important. A normal adult male will pass 250 to 450 gr. (16 to 29 gm.), and females less. If the quantity eliminated falls much below this normal minimum, the operator should be put on his guard, and, when the total urea falls below 100 gr. (6.5 gm.), no one can safely be given a general anesthetic (Fowler). If albumin be present, the dangers of a general anesthetic are increased, especially with ether. In the presence of large quantities of albumin and casts the operation should be postponed or local anesthesia substituted. With sugar in the urine, the chances of diabetic coma developing should always be carefully considered. The presence of acetone and diacetic acid is of especial dangerous significance.

Another important point is the arterial tension. When time permits, the blood pressure should be taken in all cases (see Chapter III). If it is found to be abnormally high, nitrites should be administered for several days, and, where there is not time for this, nitroglycerin should be given by hypodermic before the anesthetic is begun. In the presence of hypotension, cardiac stimulants for several days previous to the operation are indicated.

Care of the Patient.—The comfort of the patient while on the operating table should be seen to by the anesthetist. Care should be taken to maintain the bodily heat and prevent chilling by a proper amount of covering. The habit of washing patients with quarts of solution and leaving them lying in a pool of chilly water is to be condemned. It is preferable to arrange the patient upon the table before the anesthetic is begun. Anesthetizing a patient in one room and then moving him

to the operating-room is not to be advised if it can be avoided. The lifting around of the patient allows him to partly come out, and often starts up vomiting.

The position assumed by the patient upon the operating-table should be unconstrained and as comfortable as is consistent with the needs of the case. A supine position, with the head elevated sufficiently upon a small pillow to allow freedom in breathing, answers in the majority of cases. Ether and nitrous oxid are sometimes given with the patient's head and trunk elevated, but under no circumstances should chloroform be given with the patient sitting up or semiupright, on account of the danger of cerebral anemia. In weak anemic individuals the upright position should, for the same reasons, be avoided with any anesthetic.

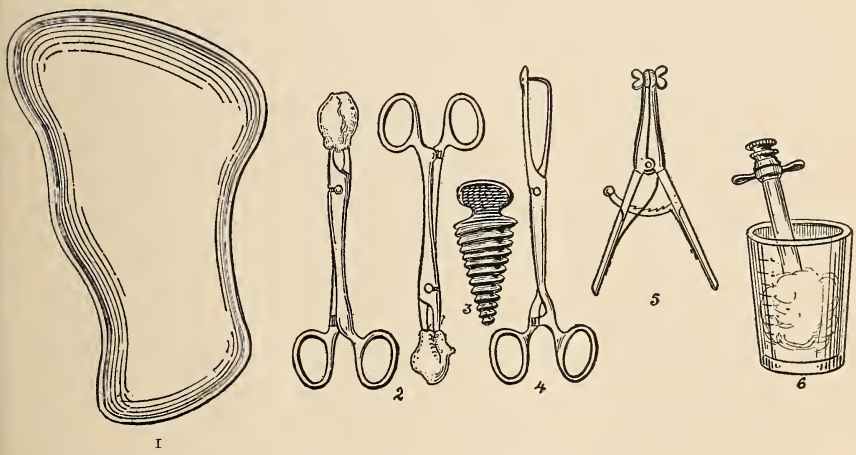


FIG. 1.—The anesthetist's supplies.

1, Pus basin; 2, mouth wipes on artery clamps; 3, mouth wedge; 4, tongue forceps; 5 mouth gag; 6, hypodermic syringe.

Before administering the anesthetic, anything that interferes with or obstructs the respiration in the slightest degree should be removed. Tight collars, bandages about the neck, clothing, belts, straps, braces, etc., should invariably be loosened, no matter how short the anesthesia. The mouth should be examined, and false teeth, obturators, plates, chewing gum, tobacco, etc., should be removed lest they fall back into the larynx and cause choking. It is always well to have a third person present in case help is needed, and in the case of a female patient this is very necessary, as erotic dreams may lead to damaging accusations against the anesthetist.

The Anesthetist's Supplies.—Besides the apparatus necessary for the actual administration of the anesthetic, the anesthetist should be provided with the following: a mouth gag, a wedge or screw-shaped piece of hard rubber to force the jaws apart, tongue forceps, a hypodermic syringe in good working order, with whisky, camphor, adrenalin, atropin, and strychnin at hand in case of need, a number of small mouth wipes with an artery clamp as a holder, and a small pus basin (Fig. 1). A cylinder of oxygen should be ready for use, and an infusion set and tracheotomy tube should be accessible, if required.

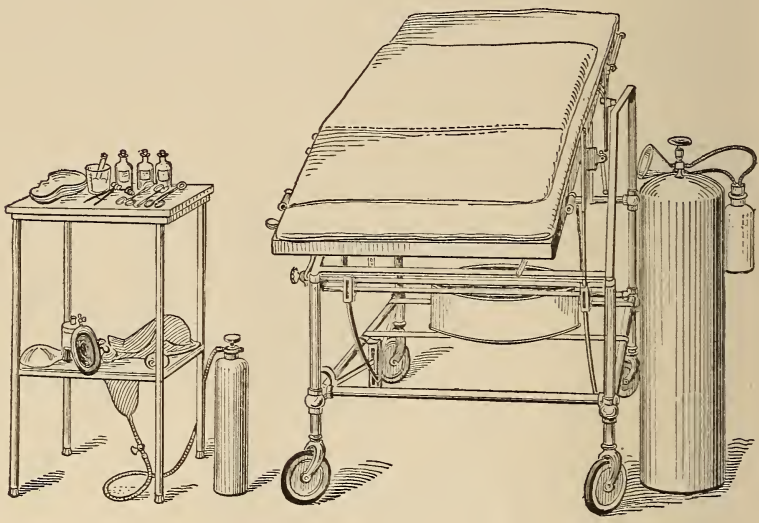


FIG. 2.—Arrangement of the operating-table and the anesthetist's supplies.

Duration of Anesthesia.—The anesthetic should be administered no longer than is absolutely necessary. It should not be started until everyone, including the surgeon and his assistants, is nearly ready, and the completion of the anesthesia should be so timed that the patient is coming out of it when he leaves the table.

Stages of Anesthesia.—Anesthesia from most of the general anesthetic agents passes through four stages, as follows: (1) The initial, or stage of irritation; (2) the stage of excitement; (3) the stage of surgical anesthesia; and (4) the stage of coming out. With some anesthetics the early stages may be more or less modified, or entirely absent, and the rapidity with which the patient passes through the different stages depends upon the drug employed and the technic of its administration.

The Initial Stage.—The inhalation of an anesthetic produces irritation of the mucous membrane of the respiratory tract and a profuse

secretion of mucus with some coughing and frequent acts of swallowing. To some persons, the odor and taste of the anesthetic are exceedingly unpleasant, so that temporary holding of the breath is not uncommon. If the vapor is given in too concentrated a form, violent coughing will be induced, accompanied by cyanosis, and frequently a sense of suffocation is experienced and the patient tries to tear off the mask. If given slowly, the coughing passes off and the respirations become rapid and regular. Spots appear before the eyes and the patient becomes drowsy. A flushed face, rapid and full pulse, with hurried respirations are characteristic of this stage. The pupils dilate, but react to light, and the cornea responds to touch. In this stage the reflexes are increased, so that a painful examination or sudden shock is dangerous.

The Stage of Excitement.—Following this preliminary stage, the patient rapidly passes into a condition of excitement or intoxication. His speech becomes incoherent, and often the imagination is excited and hallucinations occur. The patient begins to struggle, throws his arms about, kicks, tries to tear off the mask, and frequently laughs, sings, yells, cries, moans, or swears. He may breathe deeply and rapidly, or hold his breath entirely and refuse to breathe, so that he becomes markedly cyanotic. The jaws are often held together tightly by a spasm of the masseter muscles. Contractions of the muscles of the trunk and extremities occur. The eyes are often rolled from side to side. While the patient usually hears those around him talking, he fails to understand what is said. Consciousness and sensation are gradually diminished. The pupils are still dilated. The pulse is rapid and full, with very marked pulsations in the large vessels of the neck.

Stage of Surgical Anesthesia.—Following this period of rigidity and excitement, comes one of general relaxation. The contracted muscles relax; the pulse becomes slower and regular; the breathing becomes more superficial and less hurried, and is accompanied by a deep snoring due to the relaxation of the soft palate. The pupils contract but still react slowly to light, and the conjunctival reflex disappears. The skin becomes cool, pale, and moist. Total insensibility is now produced, and the anesthesia is complete. The loss of the conjunctival reflex is taken as a sign that unconsciousness is present. This is the time for operation.

The guide to the depth of anesthesia after the disappearance of the conjunctival reflex is the condition of the pupils. With light anesthesia, the pupils are moderately contracted and readily react to

light; under deeper anesthesia, the pupils are contracted and fail to react to light; and when a very profound and dangerous stage of anesthesia is established, the pupils dilate widely and remain so without reaction to light, and the respirations become shallow and gasping. In the early stages of anesthesia, and when the patient is coming out, the pupils also dilate, but they still react to light and the corneal reflex is also present. After complete anesthesia has been once reached, it may be readily maintained by adding small amounts of the anesthetic from time to time; just enough should be administered to keep the pupils midway between contraction and dilatation, with a response to light at all times.

Stage of Recovery.—The recovery from the anesthetic is characterized by the occurrence of these same stages in reverse order. In some cases the recovery is more rapid than in others. The breathing becomes slower and less audible, and there is frequent sighing. The conjunctival reflex reappears, the pupillary reflex becomes active, and the patient frequently rolls the eyes about. Frequent swallowing occurs, followed by retching. Vomiting of frothy and often bile-stained mucus occurs in many cases, and may be continued for an hour or more. Partial consciousness, with laughing, crying, or incoherent speech follow, and it is usually some hours before the mental equilibrium is completely regained. Hyperesthesia is marked in the period of recovery, and general irritability, complaints of discomfort, and pain are to be expected. Some, however, especially children, pass into a deep sleep lasting for several hours.

ETHER ANESTHESIA.

Ether is a very volatile, colorless liquid, with a strong, pungent odor and a burning, sweetish taste. It is very inflammable, and should not be used near a flame or cautery, nor should it be used near an X-ray tube; cases have been reported where combustion has taken place when ether was used in an X-ray room. An artificial light held well above it is safe, however, as the ether fumes tend to sink downward. It is explosive if ignited when mixed with air. Only the purest ether should be used for anesthetic purposes, and it should be kept in hermetically sealed tin cans, as exposure to light and air cause it to decompose into acetic acid and other irritating products.

Ether fumes, when inhaled, prove very irritating to the mucous membranes of the nose, mouth, and respiratory tract, and produce an increased secretion of mucus and saliva, often accompanied by

coughing. Lesions of the lungs are thus apt to follow its use, and may be due to the aspiration of saliva as well as to the direct irritation of the ether vapor. Ether is a distinct cardiac stimulant, accelerating the heart action and raising blood pressure; this effect is well shown when ether is administered to a very ill person, the character of the pulse often being improved immediately and continuing so until the end of the anesthesia. While its primary effect is one of stimulation, in toxic doses it acts as a depressant, especially upon the respiratory centers. Chloroform, on the other hand, is a depressant in any dose. It is estimated that ether is about five times as safe as is chloroform, and, as it is less rapid in its action, danger signs can be recognized and proper treatment instituted with more chances of success than with the latter. Upon the kidneys it acts as an irritant, and prolonged anesthesia often results in postoperative albuminuria. Ether produces a distinct leukocytosis, a slight diminution of the hemoglobin, and a marked decrease in the coagulation-time of the blood (Hamburger and Ewing).

Owing to its low boiling-point and volatility, ether is very rapidly eliminated from the lungs, and it is necessary to give it in a more or less concentrated form, thus differing from the administration of chloroform. The administration of ether is rendered safer if preliminary anesthesia is induced by some quick anesthetic, as nitrous oxid or ethyl chlorid; furthermore, oxygen and ether is a safer mixture than air and ether. The oxygen may be administered by passing the oxygen tube under the mask, or, in the closed inhalers, the tube may be attached directly to the ether bag.

Suitable Cases.—When a general anesthetic is necessary and the operation is not suited to nitrous oxid anesthesia, ether is preferable to chloroform unless direct contraindications to its use are present. In the hands of an expert, many of the dangers attributed to chloroform are absent, but it must be remembered that under the same conditions ether is also less dangerous. In unskilled hands, however, there can be no doubt that ether is always the safer.

For the stimulating effects in cases of shock or hemorrhage, or when it is necessary to obtain a profound degree of narcosis with abolition of the reflexes, ether is by all means the best agent to use. In anemia ether is preferable to chloroform, as it has a less marked effect upon the hemoglobin. If the patient's hemoglobin is below 30 per cent., however, any general anesthetic is contraindicated (Da Costa). In heart disease, if the compensation is good, ether is safe, but with broken compensation or

when there is high arterial tension and degenerative changes in the blood-vessels, it is contraindicated on account of the danger from over-stimulation. In myocardial disease it is unsafe, but not so dangerous as is chloroform.

On account of its irritant action, ether should be avoided in bronchitis or acute lung troubles, and, for the same reason, in advanced Bright's disease. In patients over sixty years old, ether, as a rule, is to be avoided, as they are very likely to be afflicted with respiratory troubles, and the circulatory system is usually the seat of degenerative changes. For children, a mixture of chloroform and ether, or chloroform alone, is the better anesthetic, ether proving irritating to the delicate respiratory mucous membrane of a child, and often producing such a flow of mucus and saliva that breathing is seriously interfered with.

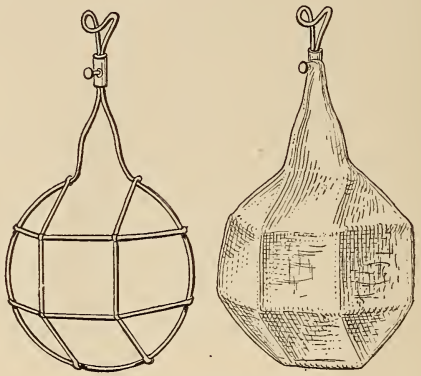


Fig. 3.—The Esmarch mask.

Ether is not recommended in cerebral operations—at the beginning, at any rate—on account of the struggling, resultant congestion, and increased liability to hemorrhage. It should never be administered in operations about the mouth or face requiring the use of a cautery near by.

Apparatus.—Ether may be satisfactorily administered by the drop method, the semiopen, the closed, or the vapor method. Different forms of inhalers are used, according to which method is employed Of the open inhalers, any of the chloroform masks, such as Esmarch's (Fig. 3) or Schimmelbusch's (Fig. 4), will be found satisfactory. They are very simple, consisting of a wire frame covered with canton flannel or several layers of gauze, upon which the ether is dropped. Such inhalers permit a very plentiful supply of air. An ordinary

chloroform bottle (Fig. 5) may be used for the dropping, or a very convenient dropper can be improvised by cutting a groove in both sides of the cork of the ether can—one to admit air and the other to allow the escape of the ether.

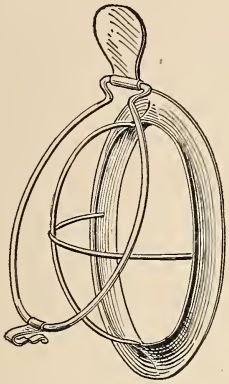


Fig. 4.—The Schimmelbusch mask.

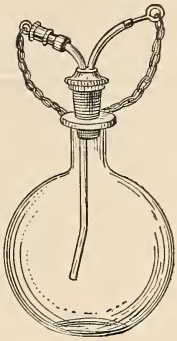


Fig. 5.—Chloroform dropper.

The Allis inhaler (Fig. 6) is a type of the semiopen cone. It consists of an outer rubber case in the upper part of which is fitted a metal frame provided with slits through which is threaded a cotton or flannel bandage. A very simple semiopen inhaler may be made by rolling several thicknesses of heavy brown paper into a cuff and covering it with a towel. The top of the cone, which is held partly closed

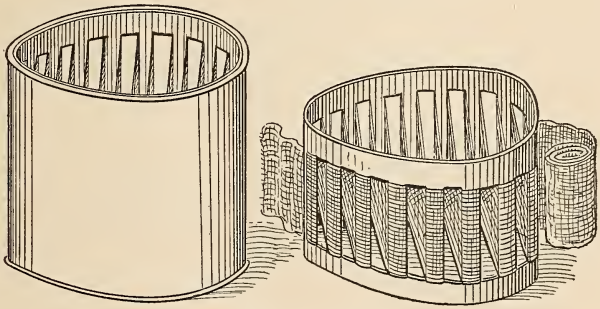


Fig. 6.—The Allis inhaler.

by safety pins, is filled with gauze upon which the ether is poured (Fig. 7).

There are many excellent closed inhalers, such as the Clover (Fig. 8), the Bennett (Fig. 9), the Gwathmey, the Pedersen, etc. These consist essentially of a metal face-piece surrounded by an inflatable rubber rim, an ether chamber filled with gauze, and a closed rubber

bag into and out of which the patient breathes. They are also provided with suitable openings for the entrance of air.[1] With such inhalers, the temperature of the ether vapor is raised by the expired air, thus adding to the value and safety of the anesthetic.

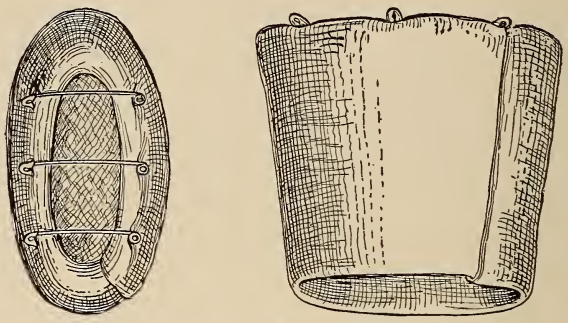


Fig. 7.—Towel cone.

To obtain the benefit of the warm vapor without the disadvantages of the closed inhalers, the vapor method of etherization is preferred by some. It is an excellent method of anesthesia to use in operations about the mouth, as the vapor can be delivered through a small tube

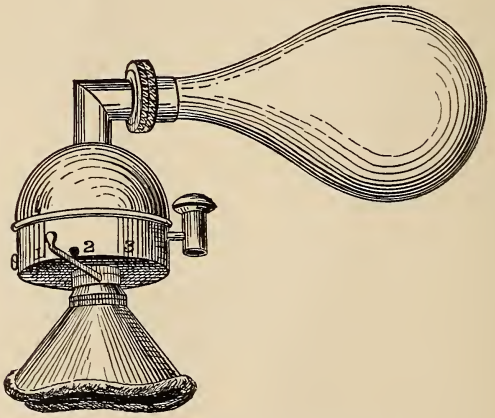


Fig. 8.—The Clover ether inhaler.

passed into the mouth without interfering with the operation. There are a number of inhalers for this purpose, of which Gwathmey's apparatus is a type. Gwathmey's vapor apparatus (Fig. 10), as described by him (*Journal of American Medical Association*, October 27,

[1] Space does not permit a detailed description of these inhalers, nor is it necessary, as a description of the mechanism and full instructions are furnished with each instrument.

1906), consists of two six-ounce (178 c.c.) bottles, one for chloroform and one for ether. Both bottles are placed in a tin vessel containing thermolite. This "thermolite warmer," if placed in boiling water for three minutes, will remain warm for over one and a half hours. If the heat is to be continued, this can be accomplished by simply taking the

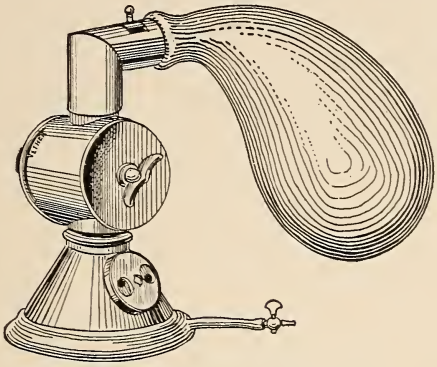


FIG. 9.—The Bennett ether inhaler.

stoppers out, thus exposing the thermolite to the atmosphere. The liquid then begins to recrystallize, and on turning to a solid form gives off heat for another hour and a half. In each of the bottles there are three tubes, varying in length from one that reaches to the bottom of the bottle to one that penetrates only the stopper, and representing

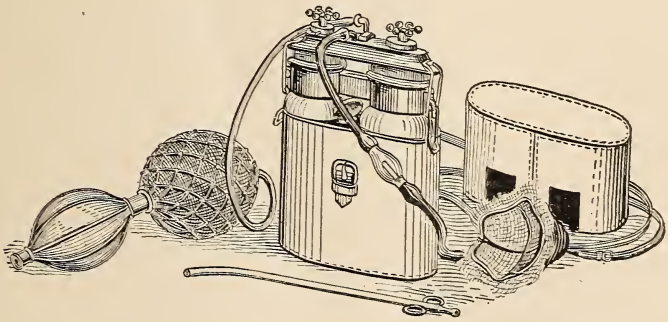


FIG. 10.—Gwathmey's vapor apparatus.

three degrees of vapor strength. The small switches at the top of each bottle are so arranged that chloroform or ether, combined or separately, can be given, and in any strength desired. In addition, by simply turning a small lever, without removing the mask, the patient receives pure air or a mixture of oxygen and air. By compressing the hand

bulb, air or oxygen is forced into the apparatus and the warmed ether or chloroform vapor is carried to the patient by the efferent tube.

Inhalers, whatever the variety, should always be properly sterilized after use. Disregard of this precaution has been the cause of many of the cases of postoperative pneumonia. Metal portions of the inhaler should be boiled and the rubber parts soaked in a 1 to 20 solution of carbolic acid after each administration. The parts are then dried, and fresh gauze packing is supplied for the closed inhalers and the open ones are covered with new gauze or canton flannel.

Administration.—*Drop Method.*—The usual precautions already detailed having been observed, and the eyes of the patient being pro-

FIG. 11.—Showing the administration of ether by the drop method.

tected by a folded piece of gauze, the anesthetist starts the anesthetic by placing the mask over the mouth with the request that the patient breathe naturally and regularly. As soon as several breaths have been taken, a few drops of ether are poured on the mask. After a few more breaths, more ether is added, gradually increasing the amount each time. If the patient struggles or begins to cough and choke, the amount of ether should be lessened for the time being. In from five to six minutes the stage of excitement and struggling begins, and the ether should then be dropped more rapidly. It should never, however, be poured on suddenly in large amounts, as this simply irritates the respiratory tract and produces laryngeal spasm, causing the patient to cough,

choke, or hold his breath. If the dropping is properly performed, full anesthesia should be obtained in from ten to fifteen minutes. By the drop method an even anesthesia without cyanosis is produced. As soon as the patient is thoroughly anesthetized, just sufficient ether should be given to keep him thoroughly under its effects.

During the anesthesia the breathing should be carefully watched, together with the pulse and the eye reflexes. Under the stimulation of the ether, the respirations are increased in frequency and depth, and are rather noisy in character on account of the increased amount of mucus and saliva that collects in the throat. Irregular rapid respiration approaching a gasping type is unsafe. The breathing should not be allowed to become gurgling or obstructed. To prevent this, the jaw should be held well forward by placing the fingers back of the angle, as shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 12).

Fig. 12.—Proper method of holding the jaw forward.

This prevents the relaxed epiglottis from being pushed back by the tongue over the opening in the larynx, since, if the jaw is pushed forward, the tongue goes with it, giving a clear passage. In holding the jaw forward, care should be taken not to use force or bruise the tissues. If this maneuver does not overcome the obstruction by the tongue, the latter should be pulled out and held well forward by means of a tongue forceps or a silk thread passed through its tip. This, however, is seldom necessary if the jaw is properly held and the head is turned to one side so as to allow the mucus and saliva to flow out through the corner of the mouth. Should vomiting occur, the inhaler must be removed and the patient's head turned to one side so that the vomited matter can escape; and, before the mask is reapplied, the mouth should be well cleared of vomitus.

The pulse under the effect of ether becomes somewhat rapid, but of greater volume and increased tension. At first the pupils are widely dilated and then tend to moderately contract. Should they suddenly

dilate and remain so without responding to light in the absence of the conjunctival reflex, it is a sign of overnarcosis. Other danger signs are a weak, thready, or irregular pulse, and marked pallor or cyanosis. Hiccough usually means that the patient is getting ready to vomit. Rolling of the eyes and repeated acts of swallowing are preliminaries to the patient coming out. Both conditions require more ether.

As the operation progresses, smaller quantities of ether should be used, and the anesthesia should be so regulated that the patient will be just coming out of it by the time that he is ready to be moved from the table. The amount of ether used will depend upon the skill of the anesthetist and the form of inhaler. With the open inhaler, from two to four ounces (59 to 118 c.c.) should suffice for an hour; with the closed inhalers, much less will be consumed. It should always be the aim of the anesthetist to use just as little as may be necessary to keep the patient under control.

Semiopen Method.—Etherization with a semiopen inhaler differs in no material way from the drop method. The anesthesia should be started slowly by pouring into the top of the cone small quantities of ether at a time. After complete anesthesia is obtained, it may be maintained by the use of less ether than with the drop method, as the ether does not volatilize so rapidly.

Closed Method.—The gauze in the ether chamber is well saturated with ether before commencing the anesthesia. The cone is then applied and the patient is instructed to take regular breaths, breathing back and forth through the bag. As soon as he becomes accustomed to the apparatus, ether is slowly turned on during an inspiration by gradually revolving the drum of the ether chamber (Fig. 13). If cough or signs of irritation occur, the amount of ether should be cut down. Care should always be taken not to push the anesthetic too fast. Since the patient breathes back and forth the air in the rubber bag, it should be seen that the bag is kept about two-thirds full—it should never be allowed to become empty. Usually with a closed inhaler anesthesia can be produced in from four to six minutes. On account of rebreathing the same air, some duskiness of countenance is to be expected, but this may be regulated by admitting more air or by administering oxygen. A distinct livid color should not be allowed to persist with either a closed or an open inhaler. Such a condition is a sign of poor administration of the anesthetic, or else the particular anesthetic used is not suited to the case.

Anesthesia by the closed method, besides being more rapid, reduces considerably the amount of ether used. Recovery from the effects of

the anesthesia is more prompt, and the after effects, as nausea and vomiting, are greatly diminished. Furthermore, the ether vapor inhaled from the bag, being warm, is safer, more effective, and less apt to produce irritation of the respiratory tract.

Vapor Method.—It is preferable to start the anesthesia by some of the quick methods, as nitrous oxid gas followed by ether, or by ethyl chlorid followed by ether, and, when the patient is well under its influence, the ether vapor is substituted. The vapor method may, however, be used from the beginning, if desired, starting with a medium percentage of vapor, and then working to the highest. When

FIG. 13.—Showing the administration of ether with a closed inhaler.

completely under, a medium or low percentage of vapor is used, according to the case and the depth of anesthesia desired. The mask used in this method is covered with gauze, over which an impermeable material, as rubber tissue or oil silk is placed, with a small opening in the center about the size of a ten-cent piece, through which additional anesthetic may be dropped if it is found to be difficult to induce narcosis with the vapor alone.

The vapor method gives a light anesthesia, just abolishing the reflexes. The breathing more nearly approaches the normal, without the snoring rapid respiration usual to ether. The pulse is nearer normal, and the duskiness of countenance often present with the closed method is absent.

CHLOROFORM ANESTHESIA.

Chloroform is a clear, colorless, heavy, volatile liquid with a sweetish taste and characteristic odor. When used for anesthetic purposes, it should be absolutely pure and neutral to litmus. Under the influence of heat or light, it decomposes into hydrochloric acid, chlorin, etc., hence it should always be kept in well-stopped, dark-amber-colored bottles and in a cool place. It is more irritating to the skin than ether and, if confined, will produce blisters. For this reason the lips, nose, and cheeks with which it may come in contact during anesthesia should be well protected with vaselin.

When inhaled, chloroform vapor has a depressant effect upon all the vital functions, but especially upon the circulation, lowering to a marked degree blood pressure through vasomotor depression. It is less of an irritant to the respiratory tract and more agreeable to take than ether, hence the primary stage of excitement is milder. Upon the kidneys, it is likewise less irritating. It causes slight temporary fatty changes in the kidneys, heart muscle, and liver, more marked upon the latter, which may be severe and later lead to fatal results if these organs are already diseased.

Death from chloroform is usually sudden and without premonitory signs. Vasomotor paralysis causing dilatation of the vessels and capillaries and fatal syncope is the primary cause, though the inhibitory action of the drug upon the heart itself may contribute. Respiratory failure is not common as a primary complication, but is secondary to the failure of the vasomotor centers. Many of the deaths from chloroform occur early in its administration when, during the stage of excitement and struggling, more of the drug is inhaled than is expected, or it is pushed too rapidly in an attempt to overcome the struggling. With a trained and watchful assistant as an anesthetist, chloroform is robbed of many of its dangers, but in inexperienced hands it is a most dangerous drug, being estimated to be about five times more fatal than ether. It is considered less dangerous in warm climates than in cold ones.

Chloroform is the strongest anesthetic we possess, and should always be administered well diluted with air. A stronger vapor than 2 per cent. is a dangerous dose. In this respect it differs from nitrous oxid and ether, in the use of which a well-saturated vapor is required. A mixture of chloroform and oxygen is safer than chloroform and air. The use of this combination is less often accompanied by circulatory depression, while cyanosis and postoperative vomiting are less frequent.

Chloroform should always be administered warm. This can be accomplished by using some one of the warm vapor inhalers, or by simply placing the bottle containing the drug in warm water (100° F.) every few moments.

Chloroform should never be given with the head very high, or with the patient sitting up, on account of the danger of syncope; this precaution should also be borne in mind when lifting or moving persons under the influence of chloroform. As a rule, the recovery from chloroform anesthesia is quicker than from ether, though the vomiting may last longer.

Suitable Cases.—Chloroform is generally preferred to ether in young children and in those over sixty years of age who are free from myocardial disease, for the reason that it causes less irritation of the mucous membrane lining the respiratory tract. It is preferred to ether for patients with advanced Bright's disease who are free from myocardial trouble, in obstructive conditions of the larynx or trachea, and for those whose lungs are involved by such conditions as tuberculosis, asthma, bronchitis, etc.

In heart disease with broken compensation and dyspnea, in aneurysm, and in cases of marked degeneration and weakening of the blood-vessels, chloroform is better than ether on account of the milder preliminary stages. In cases of myocarditis and of fatty degeneration it is dangerous and some other drug should be employed.

In parturition it is safer than in health, because only a partial action is required, and fright and apprehension which may be the cause of some of the fatalities are absent. When, however, deep surgical anesthesia is required in such cases, ether is indicated.

Chloroform should be avoided as an anesthetic in hemorrhage or shock, on account of its depressant effect upon the circulation; and likewise in anemia, as it decreases hemoglobin and actually produces anemia. In cerebral surgery, chloroform is preferred by many surgeons, and also in operations about the face and mouth, after induction of complete narcosis by some other method, as it causes but little cough and flow of saliva, and the anesthesia can be maintained with but a small amount of anesthetic. As its vapor is not inflammable, it can be employed in operations about the mouth or face while the cautery is being used. In minor surgical cases, where the operation is often performed under incomplete anesthesia, chloroform is contraindicated. In ophthalmic operations, where the condition of the pupil cannot be ascertained, ether is preferred to chloroform.

Apparatus.—Chloroform should never be administered in a closed

inhaler. Either the open drop method, with a free mixture of air, or the warm vapor method should be used. For the former, a handkerchief, the corner of a towel (Fig. 14), or a piece of gauze will suffice, but a mask, such as Skinner's, Esmarch's (see Fig. 3), or Schimmelbusch's (see Fig. 4), covered with canton flannel or several layers of gauze, is more suitable. In addition, a drop bottle (see Fig. 5) from

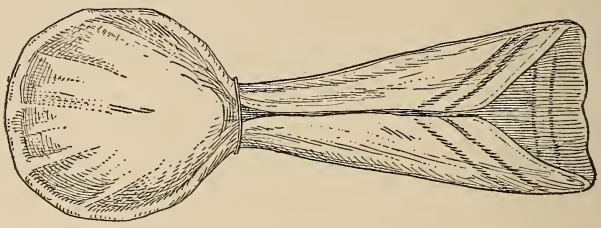


Fig. 14.—Chloroform mask improvised from the corner of a towel.

which the flow can be accurately regulated, and a receptacle for warm water will be required.

Different forms of apparatus for accurately estimating the strength of vapor, as Junker's (Fig. 15), Braun's, Gwathmey's (see Fig. 10), etc., are often used. These are supplied with a tracheal tube and are especially useful in operations about the mouth or throat. By squeezing the bulb, air is forced through the warmed chloroform, and a

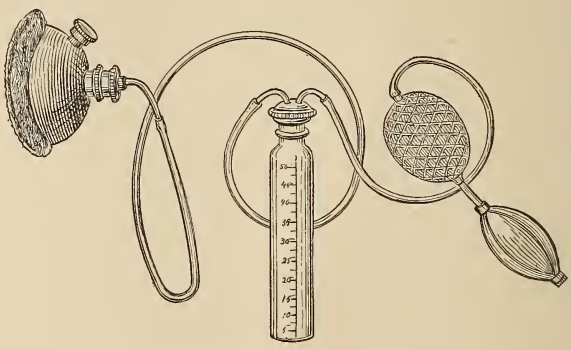


Fig. 15.—Junker's chloroform inhaler.

vapor containing a definite mixture of chloroform and air is administered. By attaching the bulb to a tube connected with an oxygen cylinder, oxygen may be readily administered instead of air.

The same care as to the cleanliness of the chloroform mask should be observed as would be with ether inhalers. After each anesthesia the metal framework should be boiled and then recovered.

Administration.—The usual precautions already considered should be observed, and the patient's lips, nose, mouth, and cheeks should be well greased with vaselin or lanolin. The anesthetic is started by holding the mask wet with a few drops of warm chloroform 4 or 5 inches (10 to 12 cm.) from the face (Fig. 16) and the patient is told to breathe naturally and regularly. As soon as the patient grows accustomed to the vapor, the chloroform is dropped steadily at a rate of 10 to 30 drops (0.60 to 1.90 c.c.) a minute, and the mask is brought

Fig. 16.—Showing the method of administering chloroform (first step).

nearer the face, being careful, however, not to touch the skin with portions of the mask wet with chloroform (Fig. 17). When given gradually in this way, the struggling is not usually prolonged or violent. The anesthetic should never be poured on suddenly in large quantities; it must always be administered well diluted with air. *In the stage of excitement, chloroform must be given with extreme care;* if the patient struggles, the drug should never be pushed, otherwise, when the patient holds his breath, as he will in such cases, a large quantity of the anesthetic is retained in the lungs, and, when he takes a deep breath, a dangerous amount may be inhaled from the already oversaturated mask. Coughing and vomiting mean that the vapor is too strong, and it should be promptly diminished, as it should also if the patient's

breathing becomes embarrassed. The jaw must be kept well forward if there is the slightest impediment from the tongue to free respiration. When the patient is fully anesthetized, only small quantities of the anesthetic should be administered, just sufficient to keep him under.

With chloroform anesthesia, we have practically the same stages as with ether, but they succeed each other more rapidly, and a dangerous condition of anesthesia is often quickly produced unless proper care be taken. The stage of excitement is less marked and shorter than with

FIG. 17.—Showing the method of administering chloroform (second step).

ether, and the patient presents a more tranquil appearance in every way. It should be the aim of the anesthetist to keep the patient in about the following condition: regular and fairly deep respirations, with only a slight snore; pupils moderately contracted and sluggishly sensitive to light; conjunctival reflex just abolished; full muscular relaxation; and a good color without blueness of the lips or cheeks. The latter is an indication for a weaker vapor and more air or oxygen. With the ordinary chloroform mask, oxygen may be administered by simply inserting the tube leading from the oxygen cylinder under the edge of the mask.

During the entire anesthesia, careful and close watch should be kept over the respirations, the pulse, the condition of the eye reflexes, and the general appearance of the patient. It is only by the constant

and undivided attention of the anesthetist that the safety of the patient can be guaranteed. The slightest alteration in the respirations should be taken as a warning, as this is often the precursor to circulatory failure. Very shallow, irregular, or gasping respiration, a weak, thready, or intermittent pulse, sudden and continued dilatation of the pupils in the absence of eye reflexes, and marked duskiness or sudden pallor of the skin, are all indications that a dangerous stage of narcosis has been reached.

The administration of anesthetics by the vapor method has already been described under ether anesthesia (p. 33), and will not be repeated here. With chloroform, it is an especially valuable method to employ, as the warm vapor can be administered in a definite strength, and with air or oxygen as desired.

NITROUS OXID ANESTHESIA.

Nitrous oxid is a colorless gas, heavier than air, and with no perceptible odor or taste. It is obtained in a liquid form, highly compressed, in steel cylinders or containers, from which, when liberated, it escapes as a gas. It has marked anesthetic properties, though the anesthesia is not so profound as that of ether or chloroform. It increases the rate and depth of respiration and accelerates the heart action, at the same time raising blood pressure. If pushed too far, the respirations cease, though the heart continues to beat for some time. It is the safest of all the general anesthetics, 1 in 100,000 being the generally accepted death rate. No deaths have been reported from nitrous oxid when administered with oxygen. By heating the nitrous oxid and oxygen, the anesthetic is made even safer than when it is administered in the usual way (Gwathmey).

Anesthesia from nitrous oxid alone cannot be maintained for more than fifty or sixty seconds without air, on account of the development of symptoms of asphyxiation. Used with the proper admixture of air or oxygen, however, an anesthesia for an hour or more may be safely maintained. According to Hewitt, mixtures containing 5 to 7 per cent. of oxygen are best suited for adult males, and mixtures of 7 to 9 per cent. of oxygen are best for females and children. Mixtures of nitrous oxid and air, composed of from 14 to 18 per cent. of the latter for men, and from 18 to 22 per cent. for women, give the next best results.

Nitrous oxid is very rapid in its action, producing complete unconsciousness in from one to two minutes, and is the most agreeable of the

general anesthetics to take. The patient comes out of it very quickly, usually in from thirty to sixty seconds, and its use is not followed by nausea and vomiting. The lung, kidney, and heart complications of ether and chloroform are likewise absent.

Suitable Cases.—When used pure, nitrous oxid is suitable only for short procedures lasting about a minute, such as extracting teeth and making incisions for drainage, etc. With the admixture of air or oxygen in proper quantities to prevent asphyxial symptoms, and administered by an expert, the scope of nitrous oxid may be greatly broadened, and it may be made applicable for anesthesia in some major surgical operations not consuming a great deal of time, as well as in many of the minor ones. It is an excellent anesthetic to employ for the reduction of fractures requiring only a moderate amount of muscular relaxation, and for breaking up adhesions in ankylosed joints. When local anesthesia is contraindicated, it becomes the anesthetic of choice for abscess, felon, empyema, benign tumors, strangulated hernia, varicocele, minor amputations, exploratory operations, etc. Bevan and others have employed it extensively with success in operations of considerable magnitude upon the biliary passages, kidney, bladder, intestines, and stomach. It should be remembered, however, in connection with some of the above abdominal cases, that complete relaxation is often not obtained under this form of anesthesia.

Nitrous oxid is contraindicated in cases of dilated heart or advanced valvular disease, and in patients with atheroma of the blood-vessels, on account of the danger of cerebral hemorrhage. In children, the mask and formidable appearing apparatus frequently cause so much fear as to preclude its use. It is not a suitable anesthetic to employ in patients with narrow or abnormal air passages, or in those with goiter, enlarged tonsils, or adenoids. In operations about the rectum and perineum, it is sometimes not very satisfactory, as the patient may stiffen up or straighten out the limbs, thus interfering with the operator. The same may be said of its use in alcoholics, or strong, robust, or fat individuals, though, according to Gwathmey, by preliminary medication with morphin alone, or with morphin and chloretone, or morphin and hyoscin, any patient can be anesthetized satisfactorily.

Apparatus.—Nitrous oxid may be administered alone or with air by means of any of the usual inhalers for that purpose, such as Hewitt's Gwathmey's, Bennett's (Fig. 18), etc. In general, these consist of a metal mask with a pneumatic rubber rim that fits the face accurately so as to preclude air, a gas chamber with inspiratory and expiratory valves or openings, and, attached to the gas chamber,

a rubber balloon connected by rubber tubing with the nitrous oxid cylinder. With such apparatus, air may be admitted through the openings provided for that purpose or the inhaler may be removed every two to five inspirations, allowing the patient to get a supply of pure

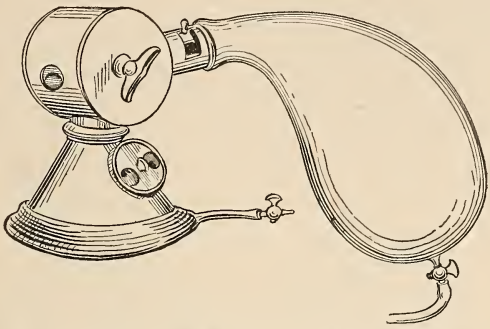


Fig. 18.—The Bennett nitrous oxid gas inhaler.

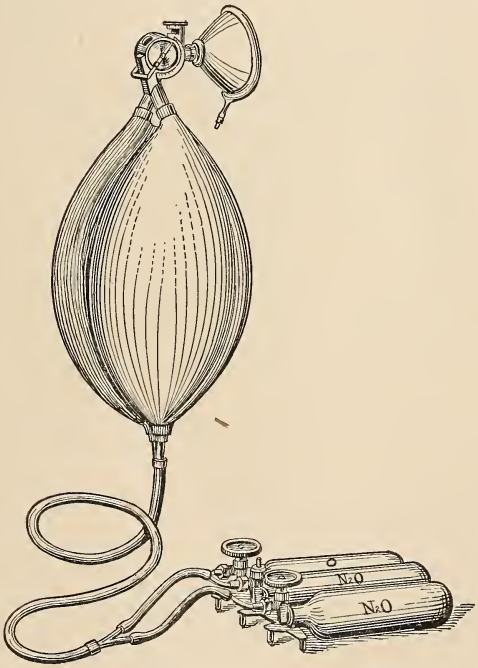


Fig. 19.—The Hewitt nitrous oxid gas and oxygen inhaler.

air. Oxygen may likewise be administered by passing the oxygen tube under the rim of the mask.

When a definite amount of oxygen is to be given, a special apparatus, as that of Hewitt (Fig. 19) or Gwathmey (Fig. 20), is essential.

In the latter, the gas is warmed by passing through a metal coil surrounded by hot water and any desired combination of nitrous oxid gas and oxygen may be obtained by regulating special switches, which are provided with indicators showing the exact strength of the vapor which the patient receives.

As with all inhalers, the metal parts should be boiled and the rubbers sterilized in a solution of 1 to 20 carbolic acid after use. Before using, the apparatus should always be tested to see that it works properly.

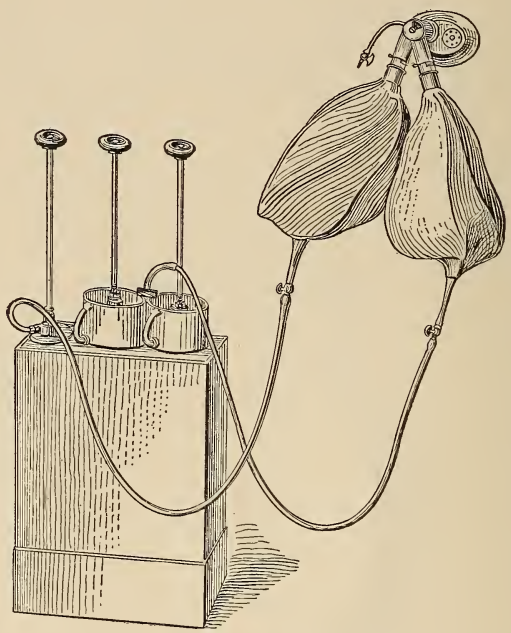


Fig. 20.—Gwathmey's nitrous oxid gas and oxygen inhaler.

Administration.—In giving pure nitrous oxid, the apparatus is properly connected with the supply cylinder, and the rubber balloon is about three-fourths filled with gas. In turning the gas on it should be done slowly, as, at times, when suddenly released, it escapes from the cylinder with a loud noise which might tend to frighten a nervous patient. The face-piece is then tightly applied over the mouth and nose, so that no air can be drawn in around the rubber rim. The expiratory valve is opened and the patient is told to breathe regularly. After two or three breaths of air, during which the patient becomes accustomed to the apparatus, the gas is allowed to enter the mask by opening the proper stopcock. The patient thus breathes in pure

nitrous oxid and expires nitrous oxid and air, so that he constantly receives more nitrous oxid into the lungs.

The first few inspirations of pure gas are soon followed by a change in the color of the face—it becomes dusky, and finally a deep livid hue. There is at first incoherent speech, but this is soon followed by the anesthetic snoring, rapid respiration, and a laryngeal stertor. There is usually tremor or twitching of the superficial muscles of the eyes, mouth, neck, etc., and at times complete rigidity and violent jactitations of the limbs. The anesthetic cannot be continued beyond this point without danger of asphyxiation. If the mask is removed, there is still a

FIG. 21.—Showing the method of administering nitrous oxid gas.

period of surgical anesthesia, lasting about a minute. This is soon followed by a reactionary redness or blush about the face, and a return to normal breathing. By reapplying the mask before the patient entirely comes out, and administering more nitrous oxid, the anesthesia may be prolonged nearly an hour, provided sufficient air is admitted to avoid extreme cyanosis, stertor, and muscular twitchings, and yet not so much as to keep the patient insufficiently anesthetized. This may be accomplished by allowing two to five breaths of nitrous oxid to one of air, or the air may be administered in combination with the nitrous oxid through the opening provided on the inhaler for that purpose. A slight duskiness of the countenance, moderate snoring, and regular respiration should be aimed at.

Administered with oxygen, the freedom from symptoms of asphyxia is complete. An even anesthesia is best obtained with some form of apparatus that accurately regulates the percentage of oxygen. The technic is essentially the same as that employed in giving pure nitrous oxid. The patient first breathes pure air, then the nitrous oxid is turned on, and finally the oxygen. Starting with but a very small proportion of oxygen (2 to 3 per cent.) it may be increased to from 5 to 10 per cent., or more, depending upon the case. Enough oxygen should always be given to prevent cyanosis without detracting from the anesthetic effects of the nitrous oxid. With the proper amount of oxygen, the patient goes under the anesthetic in two to three minutes without any of those unpleasant symptoms seen with pure nitrous oxid, the color of the skin is normal, the breathing becomes regular and slightly snoring, and the pulse may be slightly increased in rate. Recovery is rapid and is usually unaccompanied by any unpleasant after-effects.

NITROUS OXID AND ETHER SEQUENCE.

By this method the patient is thoroughly anesthetized with gas and then a change is slowly made to ether. It is a most valuable method for avoiding the disagreeable effects of the early stages of anesthesia as are ordinarily encountered when straight ether is administered from the start. A combination of gas and ether carries a patient into a stage of surgical anesthesia very rapidly—usually in about one to three minutes. Much less ether is required both in starting and maintaining narcosis than when ether alone is employed, and, the patient not being saturated with the drug, the after-effects of ether anesthesia are not nearly so frequent or pronounced. It is safer than ether given alone by the open or semiopen inhalers, probably because the stage of excitement is absent, and, in the second place, the ether vapor is warmed through the constant rebreathing; and, finally, a much smaller amount of the anesthetic is required.

Apparatus.—If desired, the gas may be administered by any of the ordinary nitrous oxid gas inhalers, and the ether by the open or semiopen method, though a combination gas and ether apparatus, such as Clover's, Hewitt's, Bennett's (Fig. 22), Gwathmey's (Fig. 23), or Pedersen's, is preferable and more convenient. These inhalers consist of the usual metal mouth-piece and inflatable rubber rim, inspiratory and expiratory valves, and gas bag. In addition, the inhalers have an ether chamber containing gauze upon which the ether is poured.

They are arranged so that gas is first administered in the usual way, and then by slowly revolving a drum the ether chamber is gradually opened, the quantity of gas at the same time being correspondingly diminished, until finally the patient receives full strength ether vapor.

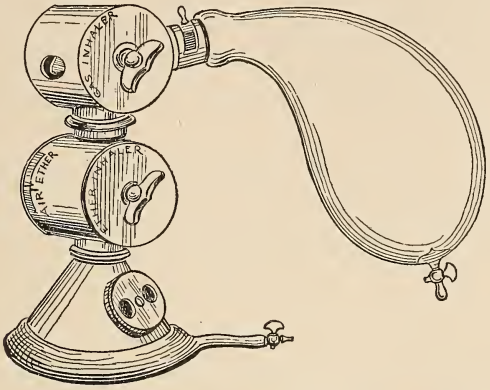


FIG. 22.—The Bennett gas and ether apparatus.

In the Bennett apparatus the gas bag is removed as soon as the patient is well under the nitrous oxid, and a second bag is substituted; with the Gwathmey inhaler, this is improved upon, and but one bag is used for

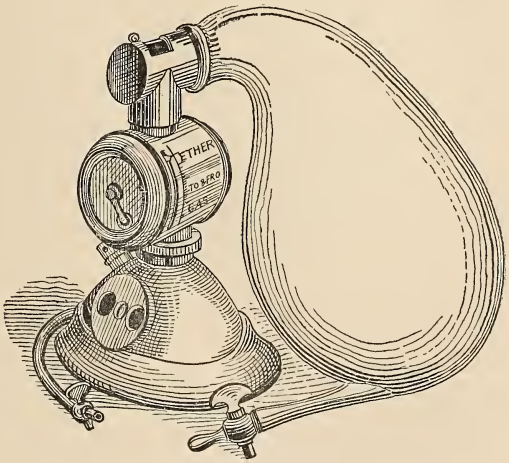


FIG. 23.—Gwathmey's gas and ether apparatus.

both gas and ether. As with all apparatus having mechanism likely to get out of order, the inhalers should always be tested before using. The same inhaler should never be taken from one person to another without sterilization.

Administration.—The apparatus is properly connected and the gauze in the ether chamber is well saturated with ether. The mask is applied to the face so that it fits snugly, and the patient is instructed to breathe naturally. As soon as it is seen that the patient is breathing properly, the expiratory valve is opened and the nitrous oxid is turned on. After a few breaths the expiratory valve is closed and the patient breathes the gas back and forth, gradually going under its influence, which is denoted by duskiness of color, irregular snoring respiration, and muscular twitching.

The addition of ether vapor is now commenced by rotating the ether chamber slowly. A small amount of ether is administered at first, and this is gradually increased until the patient is getting the full strength of ether. During this period, if symptoms of asphyxia from the gas appear, small quantities of air should be admitted from time to time through the air valve, but not in such amount as to allow the patient to come out. As soon as anesthesia is well established, which usually takes less than two minutes, the gas is discontinued and the administration of the ether is proceeded with in the usual way when using a closed cone.

In giving a combination of gas and ether, care must be taken to turn the ether on rather slowly at first. If the patient commences to cough and hold his breath, the ether should be turned on less rapidly, or entirely stopped, until regular breathing is again established. If administered properly, the patient goes under the anesthetic with surprising quickness, without any discomfort or struggling, and, after anesthesia is once established, but little anesthetic is required to maintain it. Some duskiness of countenance and cyanosis are to be expected from the nitrous oxid, and the constant rebreathing of the same vapor, but this may be controlled by a careful regulation of the air valves.

ETHYL CHLORID ANESTHESIA.

Ethyl chlorid is a colorless, very volatile and inflammable liquid. If pure, it has an ethereal odor, and should not be acid to litmus. For general anesthetic purposes the purest quality of the drug should be used, and only that labelled "for general anesthesia." This can be obtained in containers furnished with a spring stopcock, which permits the drug to be administered in a fine stream in any desired quantity (Fig. 24), or in hermetically sealed glass tubes containing about 1 1/2 drams (5 c.c.) of the drug. The latter is best suited for the closed inhalers, the whole amount being emptied into the inhaler at once.

Ethyl chlorid is decomposed by light and air, hence it should be kept in a dark place and in tightly stopped tubes.

When inhaled, it is very rapidly absorbed and is quickly eliminated, anesthesia being produced in from thirty seconds to a minute or so, and lasting two to three minutes after the withdrawal of the anesthetic. Recovery is not quite so rapid as with nitrous oxid, and after effects, such as headache, nausea, vomiting, and dizziness are not at all uncommon. It is not nearly so safe as nitrous oxid, nor so pleasant an anes-

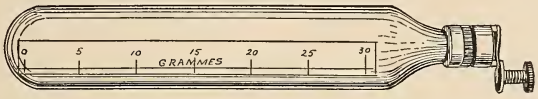


FIG. 24.—Ethyl chlorid tube.

thetic to take. It has the advantage, however, of not producing cyanosis, and the anesthetic effects are more prolonged; furthermore, it can be administered without special apparatus. It stimulates both the heart and respiration, increasing the rate and the depth of the latter, but it lowers blood pressure through dilatation of the peripheral vessels.

Suitable Cases.—Ethyl chlorid is employed mainly for brief operations or for examinations not requiring full muscular relaxation, and as a preliminary to ether to get the patient under rapidly without strug-

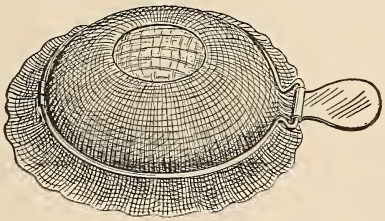


FIG. 25.—Showing the Schimmelbusch mask covered with gauze and oil silk for the administration of ethyl chlorid.

gling and excitement. It acts especially well in children or infants on account of its rapidity of action. It should never be immediately followed by chloroform, as both are circulatory depressants. Its use is contraindicated when there is any respiratory obstruction.

Apparatus.—Owing to its great volatility, ethyl chlorid is most satisfactorily given by means of a closed inhaler, though the semi-open method may be employed, and is preferred by many as being safer. For the latter, one may employ an Esmarch or Schimmelbusch

mask, over the gauze of which is placed some impervious material, as oil silk or rubber tissue, with only a small opening through which the drug is sprayed (Fig. 25); or an Allis inhaler may be used, leaving only a small opening in the top. Any of the ordinary closed inhalers can be utilized for administering ethyl chlorid by simply spraying the drug into the ether bag.

There are a number of special inhalers, however, devised especially for this drug and similar anesthetics. Ware's inhaler (Fig. 26) consists of a pliable rubber mouth-piece, to the top of which is fitted a metal chimney. At the point the latter joins the mouth-piece, several layers of gauze are interposed upon which the anesthetic is sprayed through the top of the apparatus. The somnoform inhaler consists of a glass face-piece with an inflatable rubber rim and rubber balloon. The balloon is attached to the mouth-piece by a T-shaped chamber which is provided with a valve and a small opening through which the anesthetic may be sprayed.

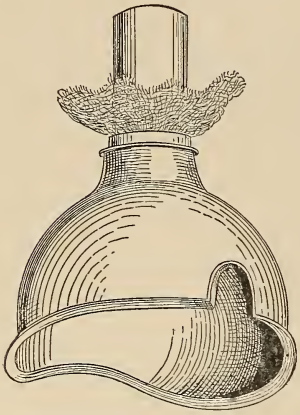


Fig. 26.—Ware's ethyl chlorid inhaler.

Administration.—In administering ethyl chlorid by the closed method, the inhaler is placed over the patient's face during expiration in order to fill the bag, and, as soon as the patient is breathing regularly, from about 1 to 1 1/2 dr. (3 to 5 c.c.) of ethyl chlorid are sprayed into the bag, or, if a special inhaler is used, into the opening provided for the purpose. If the face-piece be tightly applied, so as to prevent the entrance of air, signs of anesthesia appear in from thirty seconds to one minute. As soon as anesthesia is produced, the patient should be allowed to have air.

Full anesthesia is characterized by rapid and slightly stertorous breathing, dilated pupils, absence of conjunctival reflexes, and more or less complete relaxation. There is no cyanosis, though the color of the skin is heightened from the dilatation of the peripheral vessels. The inhaler should now be removed and the operation proceeded with, or else ether is substituted. Should the patient recover too rapidly, more anesthetic should be given, provided a plentiful supply of air is allowed. By an interrupted administration of ethyl chlorid—that is, first securing deep narcosis and then giving air—a light anesthesia may be maintained for some time, though at times muscular relaxation is

not obtained and the patient is apt to remain partly conscious. Danger signs from ethyl chlorid anesthesia are gasping, shallow respirations, pupils widely dilated and not reacting to light, and general pallor of the skin.

Administered by the semiopen method, a greater quantity of the drug will be necessary, and somewhat more time will be consumed in getting the patient under than with the closed method. The mask is placed over the face, air being excluded as far as possible by surrounding it with a towel, and the drug is simply sprayed upon the inhaler in a steady stream until anesthesia is produced.

ANESTHETIC MIXTURES.

The addition of ether, alcohol, and other drugs to chloroform has been extensively practised for the purpose of modifying the action and avoiding the dangers of the latter. There are a large number of such mixtures, varying both in composition and in the relative proportion of their separate constituents. The A. C. E. mixture is composed of:

Alcohol,	1 part
Chloroform,	2 parts
Ether,	3 parts

A mixture somewhat similar to this, known as the Billroth mixture, contains:

Alcohol,	1 part
Ether,	1 part
Chloroform,	3 parts

The C. E. mixture contains:

Chloroform,	1 part
Ether,	3 parts

Schleich's mixture for general anesthesia is composed of ether, chloroform, and petroleum ether. This is furnished in three strengths of solution, one for light narcosis, one for moderate narcosis, and one for deep narcosis.

Anesthol is composed of:

Ethyl chlorid,	17 per cent.
Chloroform,	35.89 per cent.
Ether,	47.10 per cent.

Of these, the A. C. E. mixture, the C. E. mixture, and anesthol are most used in this country.

In point of safety, mixtures occupy a place between chloroform and ether, the added safety over chloroform depending mainly upon the stimulating effect of the ether. The complications and dangers that may arise during the administration of these mixtures, however, are those met with from chloroform rather than from ether, and, as a general principle, mixtures should be given with as much caution as would be observed in the administration of the most dangerous drug they contain.

Suitable Cases.—When nitrous oxid or ether are considered inadvisable, a mixture of chloroform and ether is the next choice. Thus in children and in persons over sixty, in the fat and plethoric, in cases suffering from chronic lung trouble, as emphysema, bronchitis, etc., in advanced cardiac disease with lack of compensation, in atheroma, in alcoholics, in those with renal disease, and in cerebral operations mixtures are most useful. Being agreeable to take, they are often used as a means of obtaining primary anesthesia to ether when nitrous oxid or ethyl chlorid are unavailable.

Apparatus.—Mixtures containing chloroform should always be given by the open method, and for this purpose some such mask as the Esmarch or Schimmelbusch, previously described (see page 36), should be used.

Administration.—The same general rules and principles that govern the administration of chloroform should be followed in the use of mixtures. They should always be given with the patient in a recumbent position. The inhalation is begun gradually with the admixture of plenty of air. Small quantities of the anesthetic frequently repeated are to be used in preference to a few large doses.

The anesthesia produced by mixtures is only a slight modification of chloroform narcosis. On account of the stimulant action of the ether, the pulse is fuller and more rapid, respirations are deeper, and the whole appearance of the patient is better than when chloroform alone is used. Dangerous signs, should they appear, are not quite so abrupt as with chloroform and may usually be detected before a serious or hopeless condition supervenes.

SPECIAL METHODS OF ANESTHESIA.

Intubation Anesthesia.—In operations about the mouth, such as is required, for instance, in removal of the tongue, repair of a cleft palate, resection of the jaw, etc., the administration of the anesthetic by means of tubes passed into the pharynx through the nose, known as

Crile's method, will be found of great service. The advantages are that the anesthetist and inhaler are removed from the seat of operation so that they in no way interfere with the operator, and the anesthetic can be administered continuously, as it is not necessary to delay or stop the operation every little while in order to get the patient well under, as is the case when the ordinary interrupted form of anesthesia is employed. As the pharynx is packed with gauze, aspiration of mucus or blood from the site of operation is avoided, nor is there coughing or vomiting up of blood that may have collected in the back of the pharynx.

Apparatus.—The apparatus consists of two rubber tubes of a size that will comfortably pass through the nares, each about 8 inches

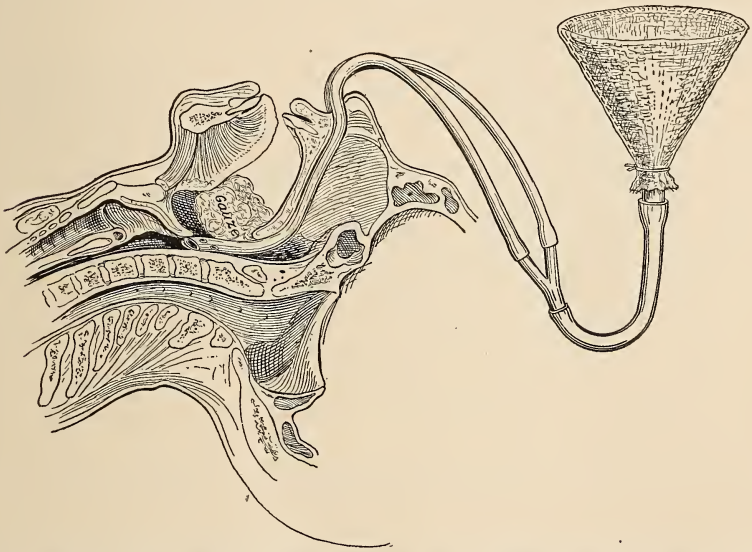


FIG. 27.—Showing the method of inserting the tubes and packing the pharynx for intubation anesthesia.

(20 cm.) long, preferably cut at their distal ends at an acute angle, and furnished with side openings. The upper ends of the tubes are connected to the two arms of a Y-shaped glass tube, to the long arm of which is attached by means of a third piece of rubber tubing a funnel lightly packed with gauze.

Technic.—After full anesthesia has been obtained in the usual way, a mouth gag is inserted, the throat is well cleared of mucus by means of small gauze swabs, and the two tubes, well lubricated, are carefully passed through the nares and down to the epiglottis with their pointed ends directed downward and forward. The tongue is then drawn well forward and the whole pharynx is firmly packed with a *single piece* of

gauze in such a way that the packing does not obstruct the lateral fenestræ or ends of the tubes (Fig. 27). Care should be taken at this stage to listen at the ends of the tubes in order to make sure that the patient is breathing properly. If he is not, the gauze should be promptly removed and the pharynx repacked. As soon as regular breathing is established through the tubes, the funnel is connected and the anesthetic is continued by the drop method.

Anesthesia Through a Tracheal Opening.—In some operations upon the tongue, larynx, or pharynx it becomes necessary to administer the anesthetic through an opening in the trachea.

Apparatus.—For this purpose a Hahn or Trendelenburg cannula is employed. These instruments consist essentially of a metal funnel,

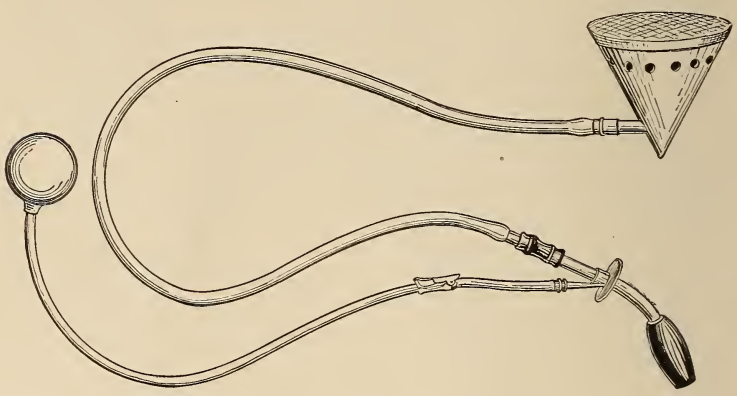


FIG. 28.—The Trendelenburg apparatus for tracheal anesthesia.

covered or filled with gauze upon which the anesthetic is dropped, and connected with a special tracheotomy tube by means of a piece of tubing. The tracheal tube of the Hahn apparatus is surrounded by a flat dried sponge fastened securely in place, which, when wet, swells up and acts as a tampon, preventing blood from descending along the side of the tube. The same result is obtained with the Trendelenburg instrument (Fig. 28) by surrounding the lower portion of the cannula with a delicate air bag, which, as soon as the tube is in place, is gently inflated by compressing an inflating bulb supplied with the apparatus.

Technic.—A preliminary tracheotomy is first performed (see page 392). The tracheal tube is then introduced into the opening, care being taken to see that the tamponage is effective, so as to prevent blood from entering the trachea. The tube to convey the anesthetic vapor from the funnel is then attached to the tracheal cannula, and the

anesthetic is administered by dropping chloroform on the gauze of the inhaler.

Rectal Anesthesia.—It consists in producing narcosis by means of warm ether vapor slowly forced into the rectum. This method was employed in 1847 by Roux. Later, in 1884, it was taken up by Mollière and in this country by Dr. Weir and Dr. Bull, but it never came into general use. In the early cases colicky pains, diarrhea, bloody stools, and painful distention of the intestine were frequently observed. These symptoms, no doubt, were in many instances due to faulty methods of administering the anesthetic, and with the improved technic of Cunningham the method has given better results.

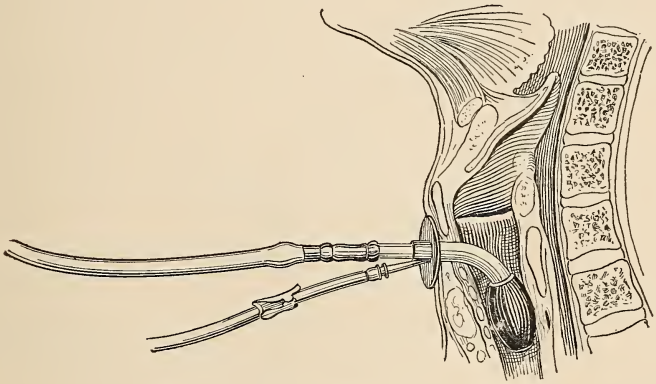


FIG. 29.—Showing the tracheal cannula in place.

Though it cannot be said to be free from risks, rectal anesthesia has a definite place among the methods of anesthetizing at our disposal. Its greatest field of usefulness is in cases of extreme pulmonary or bronchial involvement and empyema, and in operations about the face, mouth, and larynx, where other means of anesthesia are unsuited. To the former class of cases it is especially suited on account of the absence of pulmonary or bronchial irritation from the ether. While it is true that the greater part of the ether is eliminated from the lungs, the direct irritation of concentrated vapor is overcome, as is shown by the absence of the bronchial secretion, cough, etc. It has the advantage of requiring but little ether to induce and maintain anesthesia, and there is practically no stage of excitement or postoperative nausea and vomiting. On the other hand, the induction of narcosis is slow, and, in some cases where the absorptive power of the rectum is very limited, enough of the drug is not taken into the system to keep the patient under, so that other means of anesthetizing must be utilized.

It is not a suitable method to employ in abdominal operations on account of the distention produced, nor should it be used if the intestines are inflamed or the walls of the intestines weakened.

Apparatus.—The necessary apparatus consists of the following: A wash bottle to hold the ether, about 8 inches (20 cm.) high and 4 inches (10 cm.) in diameter, supplied with a tight stopper in which are two perforations. Through one of these openings a glass tube leads to the bottom of the bottle, and through the other a glass tube, cut off flush with the under surface of the stopper, leads out. A double cautery bulb is attached to the afferent tube by a piece of rubber tubing, while to the efferent tube is connected a piece of rubber tubing leading to a plain rectal tube, a glass bulb being interposed between the rectal

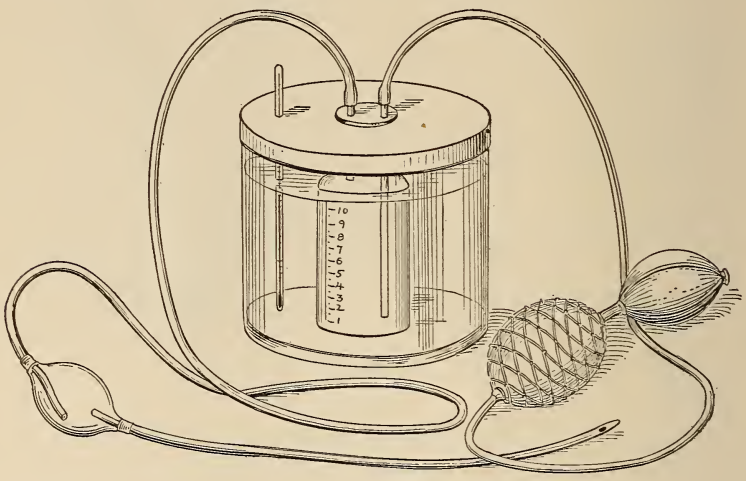


Fig. 30.—Apparatus for rectal anesthesia.

tube and the rubber tubing to catch any condensed ether vapor and prevent it from entering the rectum. Both the afferent and the efferent tubes should be of sufficient length to permit the apparatus to be moved to a distance from the patient if necessary. The ether bottle is surrounded by a metal container holding warm water. This should be kept at a temperature of about 90° F., but not much above, as the ether will boil at about 95° F. A thermometer should be provided for the purpose of regulating the temperature. By compressing the cautery bulb air is forced into the ether through the long tube and leaves the apparatus saturated with warm ether vapor.

Preparation of the Patient.—A thorough cleansing of the bowels is absolutely necessary, otherwise absorption cannot take place and the

first essential of the anesthesia is defeated. A cathartic is given to the patient the night before the operation, and on the morning of the operation a colonic irrigation, followed by an ordinary soapsuds enema an hour before the operation, complete the preparations.

Technic.—The patient lies upon the table with one thigh elevated upon a sand-bag so as to afford room to insert the tube, etc. The bottle is filled about two-thirds with ether, leaving one-third of its capacity for vapor, and the apparatus is tested to see that it works properly. The rectal tube, well lubricated, is inserted about 8 to 10 inches (20 to 25 cm.) within the bowel, and the ether vapor is forced in by means of gentle compressions of the rubber bulb every five to ten seconds. As the rectum becomes distended, the forefinger should be inserted alongside the tube into the bowel to permit the gases already present to escape, otherwise the absorption of the vapor is interfered with; on complaints of distention, the superfluous vapor must, likewise, be allowed to escape.

In from three to five minutes the odor of the drug will be distinguished in the patient's breath, and the patient soon begins to feel drowsy. The breathing, at first rapid, becomes regular and finally slightly stertorous, and the patient then passes into complete surgical narcosis, generally without the preliminary stage of excitement. The time necessary for this varies from five to fifteen minutes, according to the patient and the absorption power of the bowel. The anesthetic cannot be pushed, however, for the more the bowel is distended beyond a certain point the less is the absorption. As soon as anesthesia is complete it may be maintained by gently squeezing the bulb every minute or so. The same signs as to the depth of anesthesia, condition of the patient, etc., should guide the anesthetist as in the administration of pulmonary anesthesia, and the same precautions about keeping the tongue and the jaw forward should be observed. At the completion of the anesthesia, the rectal tube is disconnected from the apparatus, and, by gentle abdominal massage of the colon, the vapor remaining unabsorbed is forced out. This should be followed by a cleansing enema.

Scopolamin-morphin Anesthesia.—Hypodermic injections of scopolamin and hyoscin (which is claimed to be chemically the same) have been used quite extensively in combination with morphin to produce anesthesia. From the number of deaths reported from this combination when used in large enough quantities to produce anesthesia unaided it would appear to be a very dangerous form of anesthesia, and up to the present time it has a higher death percentage than chloro-

form or ether. In small doses, however, hyoscin and morphin may be used with good results as an adjunct to local or general anesthesia. In such cases they can be given as follows: Hyoscin, gr. 1/100 (0.00065 gm.) and morphin, gr. 1/6 to 1/4 (0.0108 to 0.0162 gm.) by hypodermic, one hour to two hours before operation. This combination is more efficacious than morphin alone, and has the effect of producing a drowsy state and even sleep, which may last five to six hours after the operation. It is contraindicated in patients with heart disease or when there is a tendency to pulmonary edema. In the young and the aged hyoscin and morphin should be used with great caution.

ACCIDENTS DURING ANESTHESIA AND THEIR TREATMENT.

The accidents and dangers that may arise during the administration of anesthetics are connected with the respiratory or circulatory systems and include asphyxiation, respiratory paralysis, and cardiac paralysis. Theoretically, the dangers of nitrous oxid, ether, and ethyl chlorid are those to be expected from failure of the respiratory centers, while the accidents from chloroform narcosis are primarily those occurring as the result of the depressing effects of the drug upon the circulation. Practically, however, in severe cases failure of the respiratory centers and circulatory paralysis, if not coincident, precede or follow one another in such rapid sequence that it is often impossible to distinguish between the two or to determine which is the primary cause, and treatment must be directed toward both conditions.

Accidents may be avoided in the great majority of cases if proper precautions are taken beforehand in the preparation of the patient and due care is observed in the administration of the anesthetic. These points have already been considered, but it may not be out of place to emphasize by repetition the most important of them. Never allow the patient to have food within three hours of the time of anesthesia. See that all foreign bodies, false teeth, plates, etc., which might fall into the throat and obstruct the respiratory passages are removed beforehand, and that tight bandages or clothing that might constrict the neck or chest are loosened. When relaxation occurs, turn the patient's head to one side to allow mucus and saliva to flow from the mouth, and see that the tongue does not fall back in the throat and act as an obstruction. The anesthetist must devote his entire attention to the anesthesia, taking particular care to watch the respirations, at the same time not forgetting to give due attention to the pulse, the condition

of the eye reflexes, and the general appearance of the patient. The assistant chosen for this duty should be a person of large experience in the administration of anesthetics so that he may be competent to interpret danger signs before they proceed too far. If there is any doubt as to the meaning of a sudden change in the patient's condition or of unusual symptoms, it is always better to err on the safe side and allow the patient to partly recover than to induce a deeper, and what may be a dangerous, state of narcosis.

Asphyxiation.—Asphyxiation indicates that there is some interference with the amount of oxygen the patient is receiving. It is characterized by a moderate cyanosis or a marked lividity of color and gasping respirations. It may be only transient, or it may become progressively worse and severe. Such a condition should be promptly treated by removal of the cause which will be found to be some one of the following: coughing, struggling, locking of the jaws, awkward position of the patient, an improper holding of the cone, the so-called "forgetfulness to breathe," falling back of the tongue and epiglottis, obstruction to the air passages by blood, mucus, saliva, or foreign bodies, partial or complete occlusion of the nose from deformities of the bones and nasal growths, or from collapse and falling in of the alæ nasi during inspiration under deep narcosis.

Treatment.—Cyanosis due to coughing or struggling may be overcome by simply removing the inhaler and permitting the patient to get a breath of fresh air. When the position of the patient is responsible, it should be corrected without delay. If the cyanosis be due to obstruction or partial occlusion of the nares, the mouth should be kept sufficiently open by means of a mouth-gag to permit the entrance of the necessary amount of air. "Forgetting to breathe" is met by removing the inhaler and, after waiting a moment, the patient will in the majority of cases take a breath. If this is not sufficient, a sharp slap upon the sternum with a wet towel or a momentary compression of the sternum is frequently all that is necessary. Failing by these means, the jaws should be held apart and rhythmic traction exerted upon the tongue to excite a reflex inspiration.

Obstruction caused by the falling back of the tongue and epiglottis is corrected by properly holding the lower jaw forward (Fig. 31), or by traction upon the tongue by means of tongue forceps or a silk ligature. The most effective means for overcoming obstruction from this cause is to pass the index finger into the mouth over the base of the tongue and hook it forward together with the epiglottis (Fig. 32).

When the asphyxial symptoms are due to obstruction by collec-

tions of fluid in the throat or foreign bodies, the patient's head should be turned to one side, the jaws forced open, and the air passages cleaned. Solid bodies may be removed by the finger or forceps. If this is not possible, tracheotomy (page 392) should be performed without hesitation.

FIG 31.—Method of holding the jaw forward.

In any case of asphyxia, if the cyanosis is severe and grows progressively worse in spite of the above line of treatment, the anesthetic and the operation should be discontinued while artificial respiration, combined with inhalations of oxygen, is carried out. This is most effectively performed by a combination of the Sylvester and Howard methods. Any of the methods of artificial respiration are useless, however, as long as there is any obstruction in the air passages, and these should always be first cleared out, as previously directed.

FIG. 32.—Showing the method of drawing the tongue and epiglottis forward.

Artificial respiration is carried out as follows: The foot of the operating-table is raised upon a stool and the patient is slid down so that the head hangs partly over the edge. The anesthetist, standing at the patient's head, takes a firm hold just below the elbows and draws the arms upward and outward until they are very nearly perpendicular

above the head (Fig. 33). This thoroughly expands the chest and produces an inspiration. The arms are maintained in this position for a second or two, to allow the air to thoroughly expand the lungs. Expiration is produced by the reversal of the above maneuver, bring-

Fig. 33.—Artificial respiration (inspiration). Note the assistant's hands ready to make counterpressure over the lower portion of the chest.

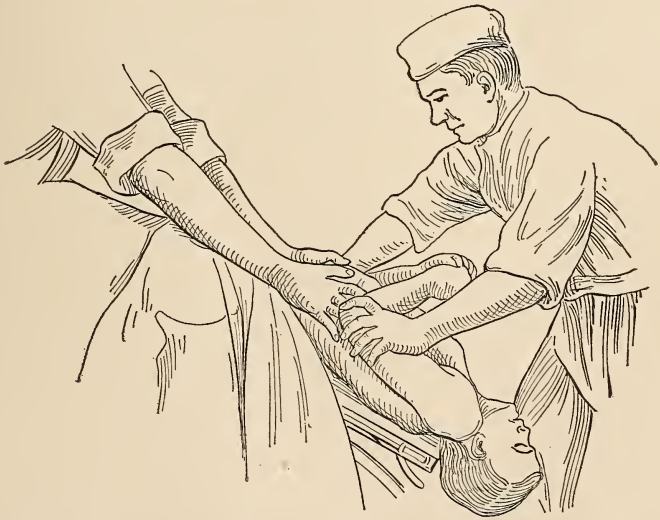


Fig. 34.—Artificial respiration (expiration). The operator brings the patient's arms firmly against the chest while the assistant makes counterpressure.

ing the arms downward with firm pressure against the chest wall, while at the same time an assistant, with palms of the hands outstretched over the margins of the ribs and epigastrium, presses upward toward the diaphragm (Fig. 34). This counterpressure prevents the effects

of the expiratory maneuver being lost upon the diaphragm and abdominal viscera. After another second or so, the assistant suddenly releases the lower portion of the chest and at the same time elevation of the arms is again performed. The movements producing artificial respiration should be made as near as possible to the rate of normal respiration, certainly not over twenty times a minute. As an adjunct to the above, forcible dilatation of the sphincter ani may be performed for the purpose of exciting reflex inspiration.

A favorable response to treatment is denoted by a gradual return of the natural color, at first feeble gasps and then stronger attempts at respiration, and a return of the pulse at the wrist. If, after five or ten minutes, there is no response to the treatment, the prognosis is exceedingly bad, but the artificial respiration should be persisted in for at least half an hour. Deaths from asphyxia alone during anesthesia can be prevented in nearly all cases by following the suggestions and the treatment above described.

Respiratory Paralysis.—This is a more serious condition. In the first stages of anesthesia it may be due to a spasm of the glottis, diaphragm, and respiratory muscles through reflex irritation from overstimulation of the nasal branches of the trigeminal nerve, when large quantities of ether are suddenly poured upon the inhaler or the strength of the drug is too rapidly increased. The patient suddenly stops breathing and becomes cyanosed, but the pupillary reaction remains and the pulse is usually good; and, if artificial respiration be promptly performed, the danger is overcome.

When the condition occurs in the later stages, after deep narcosis, it is the result of too much anesthetic, producing paralysis of the medullary centers, and is a more dangerous condition. The pupils suddenly dilate and fail to respond to light, and the conjunctival reflex is lost; the respirations become progressively weaker and more superficial, and finally stop. The heart also ceases to beat after a few seconds, the patient has an ashen-gray look, and lies in a state of extreme relaxation.

Treatment.—This is a condition requiring prompt and energetic treatment. The anesthetic and the operation should be immediately stopped and every effort made to revive the patient. It should be seen that there is no impediment to the free entrance of air into the respiratory passages, and then the foot of the table should be elevated upon a stool, while artificial respiration is performed after the manner above described (page 58).

Cardiac Paralysis.—Syncope may occur during anesthesia from

chloroform or ether, but is more apt to be produced from the former. It is the most serious of all the anesthetic accidents. From the fact that a great proportion of the deaths from chloroform anesthesia occur in the early stages, when only a small quantity of the anesthetic has been given, it has been contended that fright, producing vasomotor paralysis, is the cause. There is no doubt that fright or struggling during the early stage of anesthesia is sufficient in some cases to cause dilatation of the heart and vasomotor paralysis, especially if the individual is already affected with degenerative changes in the heart, or is suffering from severe anemia or shock. But fatal syncope has occurred in many cases after only a few inhalations of chloroform, when the patient was in strong physical condition and exhibited no fear of the operation whatever. Such cases and those occurring after full anesthesia has been established can only be ascribed to the toxic action of the drug from sudden over-dosage.

When circulatory paralysis occurs, the pulse first becomes weak and irregular, and then feeble and fluttering; the skin becomes pallid, the pupils dilate and remain fixed, and finally the heart stops entirely. Irregular attempts at breathing may continue for a few moments after cessation of the heart-beat. Postmortem examination reveals a heart dilated and overcharged with blood, and general dilatation of the capillaries and veins, especially in the abdomen, so that the patient has practically bled into his own vessels, and nearly all the blood is withdrawn from the cerebral centers.

Treatment.—The treatment of such a condition should consist in artificial respiration and in adopting means to overcome the cerebral anemia and to empty the engorged heart. In the presence of signs pointing to syncope, the treatment should be instituted promptly, without waiting for cessation of respiration. The foot of the table should be immediately elevated to an angle of 45 degrees, so that the patient is in an exaggerated Trendelenburg position. Children may be inverted by simply holding them by the heels. Combined with position, compression of the limbs and abdomen by means of bandages may be employed to force the blood from the dilated capillaries and splanchnic areas. Artificial respiration and oxygen inhalations should be employed from the start, as already described. Massage of the heart for the purpose of emptying it of the engorged blood should also be practised.

External cardiac massage can be readily carried out with the hand placed over the precordium by elevating and depressing the wrist-joint at about the rate of the normal beat. In abdominal operations the heart

may be massaged by grasping it between the thumb and forefinger, through the relaxed diaphragm, and alternately compressing and relaxing it twenty to forty times a minute. Direct cardiac massage can be practised through an incision in the fourth intercostal space and opening the pericardium. This operation has been successfully performed in some seemingly hopeless cases, and is worthy of trial.

Cardiac stimulants, such as strychnin, are of little use until the circulation is reestablished; a hypodermic of some rapid acting drug, however, as adrenalin chlorid, 5 to 20♏ (0.30 to 1.25 c.c.) injected into a vein, camphorated oil, 20♏ (1.25 c.c.), whisky, 20♏ (1.25 c.c.), etc., may be tried with better chances of success. An intravenous infusion of hot salt solution, combined with 15 to 30♏ (0.92 to 1.9 c.c.) of a 1 to 1000 solution of adrenalin chlorid injected drop by drop by means of a hypodermic directly into the rubber tube of the infusion apparatus while the solution is flowing, should be given by an assistant while the other means of treatment are being carried out. According to Crile's experiments, an intraarterial infusion of adrenalin in salt solution injected toward the heart (see page 137) has more effect in raising blood pressure and would be a more rational form of treatment. When there is no improvement within ten or fifteen minutes, the case is usually hopeless.

THE AFTER-EFFECTS OF ANESTHESIA.

Vomiting.—This is the most frequent postanesthetic complication. The best way to avoid it is by careful preparation of the patient before anesthesia and a skilful administration of the anesthetic. In some cases, however, it occurs in spite of all that can be done, and may be persistent. That from chloroform is usually more severe and more difficult to treat.

For the ordinary vomiting, inhalations of vinegar, ice in small quantities by mouth, or very hot water in small doses (teaspoonfuls) are the common remedies. The latter is most efficient, serving to dilute the mucus and wash out the stomach contents. Fifteen to 20 gr. (0.97 to 1.3 gm.) of bicarbonate of soda in a glass of warm water is also recommended. Cerium oxalate, gr. v (0.324 gm.), bismuth subnitrate, gr. v (0.324 gm.), acetanilid in 1 gr. (0.065 gm.) doses every one-half hour until 8 gr. (0.52 gm.) have been taken, morphin, or small doses [1/12 gr. (0.0054 gm.)] of cocain every half hour up to 1 gr. (0.065 gm.) may be used in the more troublesome cases. If the condition becomes persistent and severe, lavage of the stomach

(see page 457) should be carried out and repeated as often as necessary. In fact, it is the best means of preventing vomiting in any case, and some surgeons employ it as a routine, having it performed while the patient is still on the operating-table before becoming conscious.

Respiratory Complications.—These are seen more frequently after ether than chloroform, and include edema of the lungs, bronchitis, bronchopneumonia, and lobar pneumonia. They should be treated along the lines ordinarily followed in such cases. Lung complications are especially liable to follow anesthesia where a diseased condition is already present, as in those suffering from bronchitis, emphysema, or tuberculosis, or in the aged or feeble.

To avoid as far as possible such complications, the mouth, nose, and teeth should be carefully cleansed before anesthesia, the apparatus employed for administering the anesthetic should not be carried from one patient to another without sterilization, and due care should be observed while administering the anesthetic to prevent aspiration of fluids or vomitus. As a further precautionary measure, the patient should always be carefully protected against chilling, both during the anesthesia and while he is being removed to his bed.

Renal Complications.—Temporary albuminuria and casts are not uncommon after both ether and chloroform, and, if a diseased condition of the kidneys be present beforehand, it is much aggravated, though of the two drugs chloroform exerts a less irritant action. Scanty excretion of urine with actual suppression and hematuria are occasionally seen. Such a condition should be treated by mild diuretics, cathartics, and saline rectal irrigations. Glycosuria has been observed as a complication after nitrous oxid anesthesia.

Postoperative Anesthetic Paralyses.—These are mostly peripheral from pressure upon some nerve during the period of unconsciousness, though paralysis of central origin may take place as the result of cerebral embolism or hemorrhage, especially in those with high arterial tension and degenerative changes in the blood-vessels. Peripheral paralysis may affect the arm, leg, or face. Injury to the musculospiral nerve from pressure by the edge of the table if the arm is allowed to hang down, and injury to the brachial plexus from pressure between the clavicle and first rib, or by the head of the humerus when the arms are fastened above the head are the most frequent lesions.

Delayed Poisoning.—Certain of the late deaths occurring after anesthesia, that were formerly supposed to be due to sepsis, shock, fat embolism, etc., are now known to be due to an acid intoxication. This condition, variously designated as cholemia, acidosis, acetonuria, and

acid intoxication, most frequently follows chloroform narcosis and especially among children. The symptoms do not appear until the patient has recovered from the anesthesia, developing in from 10 to 150 hours (Bevan and Favill).

The condition is characterized by persistent vomiting, jaundice, sweetish breath, rapid pulse, Cheyne-Stokes respiration, in some cases extreme restlessness and excitability, in others delirium, convulsions, and coma. In some the temperature is exceedingly high (up to 108 degrees), in others it is subnormal. Death in fatal cases occurs within three to five days. At postmortem there is found a condition of fatty degeneration of the kidneys, heart muscle and liver, most marked in the latter, and at times actual necrosis of the liver is seen. This condition is the result of the destructive action of chloroform upon the cells. The insufficiency of the liver results in the accumulation of toxins, and acetone, diacetic acid, and oxybutyric acid appear in the blood and urine as by-products.

Bicarbonate of soda given by mouth in mild cases, and in salt solution by rectum, by hypodermoclysis, or intravenously in the severer ones, seems the most valuable remedy in this condition. For intravenous injection 1 1/2 ounces (47 gm.) of bicarbonate of soda is dissolved in 1 quart (liter) of normal salt solution [salt ℥ii (7.8 gm.) to the quart (946 c.c.) of water], and 1/2 pint (236 c.c.) is administered every three or four hours until the entire amount is injected. In addition, free elimination by the skin should be encouraged, and the bowels should be kept freely open.

THE AFTER-TREATMENT OF CASES OF GENERAL ANESTHESIA.

Before moving a patient from the operating-table to his bed, it should be seen that he is well protected and properly wrapped in blankets. During the process of moving, care should be taken not to elevate the head or chest. The recovery room should be well ventilated, but the patient should be protected from any draughts. The bed should have been previously prepared and well warmed by means of hot-water bags, which are to be removed, however, when the patient is received, unless there is some special indication for their use, as in shock or collapse. If used, hot-water bags should always be covered with flannel and care should be taken to see that they are not hot enough to burn the patient.

The best position for the patient is flat upon the back, with the head level or a little lower than the body, and with the face turned

to one side. If vomiting occurs, the patient should be turned slightly to one side and the vomitus received in a basin, after which the mouth should be wiped out. Frequent rinsing of the mouth with warm water can be practised if the patient is conscious, and will be found to be very grateful. The patient should be watched by an attendant until consciousness returns, for, if left alone, he may choke from mucus or vomited material collecting in the throat, or attempt to sit up, remove his dressings, or in other ways do himself harm. De-

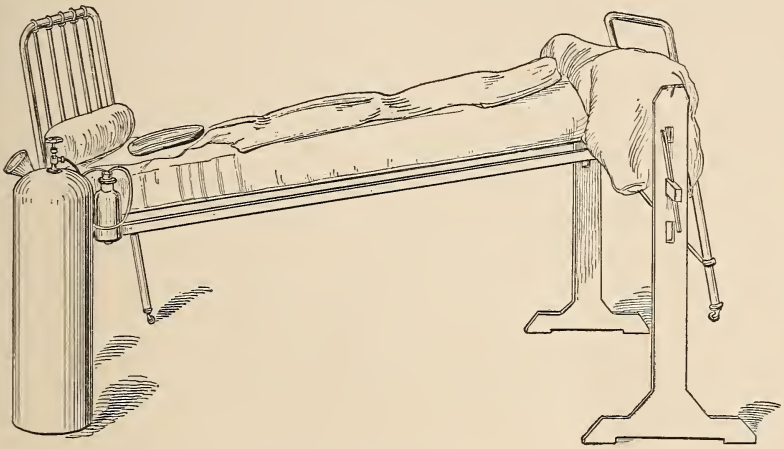


FIG. 35.—The ether bed.

lirious patients should be gently restrained, but not tied in bed. Inhalations of oxygen or vinegar, and washing the patient's face in cold water, are of aid in arousing to consciousness.

The patient should not be allowed to sit up for at least six hours. Small quantities of warm water or cracked ice are given in the first few hours, but no food is allowed within six hours. In cases of collapse, or in patients who are very weak, nutrient or stimulating enemata may be given to sustain the patient until food can be taken. The first food taken by mouth should be liquid in character, consisting of broth, beef tea, or soup. If this is retained, other articles of soft diet should be added, until the ordinary diet is being taken. It is important to have the urine examined for several days after anesthesia, and after the use of chloroform special reference should be paid to detecting the presence of acetone or diacetic acid.

CHAPTER II.

LOCAL ANESTHESIA.

By local anesthesia is understood the abolition of pain sensation in a chosen region, without the production of unconsciousness. Analgesia is a more correct term to apply to this variety of anesthesia, but usage has so perpetuated the term "local anesthesia" that it will be employed in these pages. The introduction of cocain by Koller, in 1884, first made possible local anesthesia as it is employed at the present time, compression of the nerve trunks supplying the field of operation by means of a tourniquet, and the application of cold to the part, being the methods most frequently resorted to previously. A further impetus was given to the development of local anesthesia by the discovery that infiltration with cocain, or similar anesthetic agents, into or around a nerve trunk in any part of its course effectually blocked the sensation in the region supplied by that particular nerve, peripheral to the point of injection. The introduction by Schleich of the method of infiltrating the tissues with *weak* anesthetic solutions was another important step and one that made possible the safe employment of cocain in really extensive operations.

Through improvement in the technic of the methods of infiltration and nerve blocking much progress has been made in the last few years in enlarging the field of local anesthesia until it can now be employed with entire success in a large number of major operations, as well as the usual minor ones. Indeed, it is safe to say that fully half the operations now performed under general narcosis could be as satisfactorily carried out under local anesthesia intelligently used.

In the choice between local and general anesthesia in any given case, the question to be decided is whether under local anesthesia pain sensibility can be entirely abolished and, at the same time, sufficient muscular relaxation be obtained to insure the proper performance of the necessary procedures contemplated. If these conditions can be satisfactorily obtained, and if the operator possess the necessary experience and skill in its use, then local anesthesia should be offered to the patient, if for no other reason, simply to avoid the well-known unpleasant after-effects of general narcosis, and to obtain a less disturbed and more rapid recovery, regardless of whether the particular operation be classified as a major or a minor one.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Local Anesthesia.—There are, however, certain advantages in local anesthesia that should not be lost sight of. Most important is the absolute safety to the life of the patient when this form of anesthesia is employed with proper precautions. With the substitution of the weak for the old-time strong solutions, and with a knowledge of the limit of the amount of cocain that can be safely used, the dangers of cocain poisoning may be disregarded.

Again, under local anesthesia, shock is lessened, and the depression observed after the use of general narcosis is absent to a marked degree, so that local anesthesia becomes the method of choice when an anesthetic is required for those in collapse or with lowered vitality. This is especially true when the nerve-blocking method is employed, for it is well known that cocain injected into a nerve effectually blocks the passage of all shock-producing impulses along that particular nerve. As Crile puts it: "As no impulses of any kind can pass either upward or downward, there is no more shock in dividing the tissues, even the nerve trunks thus "blocked," than in dividing the sleeve of the patient's coat." The value of this principle is so well established that the injection of cocain into nerve trunks supplying a given region of operation is frequently performed for the purpose of preventing shock even where general anesthesia is employed, as, for example, the preliminary blocking of the sciatic nerve in hip amputations.

Under local anesthesia the postoperative blood changes and the kidney, heart, and lung complications are all avoided, while the unpleasant after effects that pertain to general anesthesia are reduced to a miminum. The avoidance of vomiting is especially important for the proper healing of the wounds, and the prevention of such complications as hernia recurrence.

Under local anesthesia the most favorable conditions for primary union are present, for, as gentleness in handling tissues is essential for the successful employment of this method of anesthesia, the minimum amount of trauma is inflicted upon the tissues.

Another advantage connected with an operation under local anesthesia is that it does away with the necessity for an anesthetist, and often of any kind of an assistant—a very important consideration under some circumstances.

In certain operations—hernia, for example—there is a distinct advantage in having the patient conscious, that he may demonstrate the protrusion by coughing. On the other hand, in some cases consciousness and the knowledge of what is going on is of distinct disadvantage, and in nervous or hysterical individuals it may become a

contraindication, depending upon the control the operator has over his patient.

There is no doubt that it requires more time to operate under local than under general anesthesia, and that it necessitates the possession of patience and tact upon the part of the operator. As Matas observes, "it is this tax upon the operator's attention, and the vigilance required to keep the inhibitory powers of the patient under control, and the time consumed in the anesthetizing procedure that will prevent cocain and the local analgesics from gaining ascendency in the crowded amphitheaters of popular teachers where quick and brilliant work is expected by an impatient audience." This inconvenience to which the operator is subjected, coupled with the general unfamiliarity with the proper technic, probably accounts for the fact that the wide scope of local anesthesia is not more generally taken advantage of at the present time.

Suitable Cases.—Besides the minor surgical precedures, such as the incision of an abscess, exploratory puncture, removing small cysts, amputating toes or fingers, performing circumcisions, etc., major operations of any magnitude and extent may be performed, provided the region is capable of being anesthetized by infiltration or nerve blocking.

For the removal of practically all benign growths and isolated glands, local anesthesia is quite sufficient. Thyroidectomy is now largely done under infiltration anesthesia, with perfect success; and the avoidance of a general anesthetic in this operation has, in a great measure, contributed to the reduction in the mortality. In the extensive dissection necessary for the removal of malignant growths or long chains of matted glands, however, local anesthesia is not indicated, as the limits of the disease are not well defined when the tissues are swollen by the infiltrated fluid.

Amputations of any of the limbs may be performed if the large sensory nerves are properly blocked. By means of a preliminary cocainization of the sciatic and anterior crural nerves, amputation of the leg has been often painlessly performed when a general anesthetic was contraindicated. The same principle applies to amputations of other limbs.

Many of the operations upon the superficial bones, such as wiring procedures and rib resections, may be painlessly performed if the periosteum as well as the more superficial tissues are rendered insensible by proper infiltration. Thus fractures of the lower jaw, the clavicle, the olecranon, and the patella can readily be operated upon by local methods. The latter operation lends itself especially to local anesthesia

on account of the superficial position of the bone and the scarcity of sensory nerves in that region.

For the majority of abdominal operations local anesthesia is not satisfactory. We know that the abdominal organs are insensible to pain, but the parietal peritoneum is most sensitive, especially if inflamed. Exploratory operations and procedures, such as colostomy, gastrostomy, gastrotomy, simple drainage of the gall-bladder, suprapubic cystotomy, suture of the intestines following typhoid perforation, etc., requiring but little intraabdominal manipulation, can be readily performed without a general anesthetic; but when extensive manipulation is required, with the separation of adhesions necessitating more or less dragging upon the mesentery, local anesthesia is contraindicated. Furthermore, in abdominal surgery complete muscular relaxation is often required to secure the necessary wide retraction, and this cannot be obtained with local anesthesia.

Local anesthesia is ideal in the operations for inguinal hernia on account of the superficial position of the structures involved and the definite position and course of the sensory nerve trunks supplying the region of operation. Other forms of hernia can be operated upon by employing infiltration alone, but not with the entire satisfaction obtained in the inguinal variety. For strangulated hernia of any variety, local anesthesia should always be the choice. The additional strain of general anesthesia upon these patients frequently produces much more depression than they can bear, and, as there is no need for haste, abundance of time, if necessary, may be taken in attempts at restoration of gut of doubtful vitality, without adding a particle to the shock of the operation.

Tracheotomy, the ligation of blood-vessels, the repair of the perineum and cervix, etc., and any of the operations about the scrotum, as those for castration, varicocele, or hydrocele, are all amenable to local anesthesia. Operations about the rectum have been performed quite extensively by some operators under local anesthesia, but for most of these operations a thorough stretching of the sphincter ani is essential, and this cannot be performed painlessly by this method; for this reason it is unsuitable in the majority of cases. However, simple operative procedures, such as those for fissure, external and thrombotic hemorrhoids, and straight uncomplicated fistulæ are within the scope of local anesthesia.

By a skilful use of local anesthesia in the hands of one thoroughly familiar with the technic of infiltration, nerve blocking, etc., this list may be considerably enlarged. Furthermore, it should not be

forgotten that even in many operations too painful for cocain alone, the major portion of the operation may be performed under local anesthesia, and then nitrous oxid gas or a small quantity of ether may be administered to tide the patient over the more painful procedures, thus avoiding a prolonged general narcosis.

Those cases in which local anesthesia is impracticable have been already indicated in a general way. In addition, for young children, for those who are greatly excited or hysterical, and for insane or delirious individuals, local anesthesia is generally contraindicated, or at best it is very unsatisfactory on account of the difficulty of obtaining the necessary quietude.

Methods of Producing Local Anesthesia.—At the present time two methods of producing local anesthesia are recognized: (1) The use of agents which freeze the tissues, and (2) the use of chemical anesthetics or analgesics, of which cocain is a type. Freezing of the tissues has a very limited field of usefulness—practically none in major surgery—and it is upon some of the analgesic agents that we largely have to rely.

The methods of employing chemical anesthetics may be in turn divided into two classes: (1) Where the drug is used in such a way that the endings of the sensory nerves are paralyzed (terminal anesthesia); and (2) where the drug is brought in contact with a nerve trunk in some part of its course, thereby blocking the sensory conductivity of that particular nerve and rendering the area supplied by it devoid of sensation (regional anesthesia). To the first class belong the topical application of analgesic drugs to mucous membranes, and their injection into the tissues (infiltration anesthesia), though by this latter method a mixture of terminal and regional anesthesia is often produced; while regional anesthesia may be produced by the injection of analgesics *into* a nerve trunk (endoneural infiltration), *about* a nerve trunk (perineural infiltration), or *into* the subarachnoid space (spinal anesthesia). Another method of producing local anesthesia, termed venous anesthesia, has lately been introduced by Bier, whereby the analgesic agent is injected into the venous system and is thus brought in contact with the nerve trunks and nerve endings. This method of anesthesia is a combination of terminal and regional anesthesia.

Preparation of the Patient.—The usual preparation of the bowels, etc., recommended as preliminary to a general anesthesia, is advisable. There is no need for the patient to fast, however, and a light meal of eggs, coffee, milk, toast, etc., may be allowed, unless the character of the

operation contraindicates it. If it seems probable that a general anesthetic will be required to complete the operation, the patient's stomach should, of course, be empty, and the same precautions should be taken as for general anesthesia (see page 18). Apprehensive anticipation on the part of the patient should be prevented as far as possible by reassurances and by a good night's sleep before the operation.

Preliminary medication with morphin is advisable in all cases where the operation is to be at all extensive, unless some distinct contraindication to its use exists. It serves a threefold purpose: it allays nervousness on the part of the patient; it somewhat deadens sensibility; and it is the physiological antidote for cocain poisoning. It may be given hypodermically in the dose of 1/6 to 1/4 gr. (0.0108–0.0162 gm.) a half hour before operation. In some cases, where the patient is especially nervous or unusual difficulties are expected, morphin 1/4 gr. (0.0162 gm.) combined with 1/100 gr. (0.00065 gm.) of hyoscin may be administered hypodermically two hours before operation.

Drugs Employed for Local Anesthesia.—Local anesthetics are drugs which, even in weak solution, when brought into contact with sensory nerves temporarily paralyze them. Of the many local anesthetics cocain was the first employed and holds the most important place, having successfully stood the test of time. When applied to the unbroken skin it is without effect, but in contact with mucous membranes it completely deadens sensibility within a few moments. Injected into the tissues, cocain produces anesthesia within the area of contact; when injected into or about a sensory nerve, it is rapidly absorbed and produces complete insensibility in the whole distribution of the nerve peripheral to the point of injection.

The toxicity of cocain is due to the absorption of more of the drug than the tissues can take care of. The amount of the drug that can be injected into the tissues with safety depends upon the strength of the solution as well as the method of injection. To be well within the limits of safety, not more than 3/4 gr. (0.0486 gm.) of cocain should be allowed to remain unconfined in the tissues, nor should this amount be exceeded when applied to mucus membranes from which rapid absorption takes place. With the weaker cocain solutions (0.2 to 0.1 per cent.) it is rarely necessary to exceed this amount, even in extensive operations. Of course, when a large proportion of the solution escapes, or when the circulation is impeded by constriction, a larger amount may be used with safety.

In the early history of its development cocain was used in solutions

as strong as 10 and 15 per cent., with the result that frequently a set of dangerous symptoms, and in some cases death, were the sequels. To avoid these untoward effects, a number of drugs, as eucain B, tropacocain, stovain, alypin, novocain, acoin, nirvanin, orthoform, anesthesin, etc., which are less toxic but have about the same action as cocain, have been introduced as substitutes. Of these, eucain B, tropacocain, and novocain are probably most frequently used. These newer preparations are preferred by many operators to cocain, and they have the advantage that their solutions can be sterilized by boiling. Weak solutions of cocain, however, used with proper precautions, the writer has always found to be efficient as well as perfectly safe.

Preparation of the Solution.—Solutions of cocain should always be freshly prepared at the time of operation, as it is well known that cocain solutions are prone to decompose, and in a short time such a solution becomes capable of producing suppuration. A solution isotonic with the fluids of the body, as normal salt solution, is the best medium for dissolving the cocain. Such a solution, producing neither swelling of the tissues, as water does, nor shrinkage of the cells, as is the case with the more concentrated saline solutions, has no injurious effects upon the tissues. The effectiveness of the solution is also increased by using it warm.

As solutions of cocain will not stand prolonged boiling, the salt or tablet should be previously sterilized by dry heat. An efficient method is to place the cocain in a small test-tube plugged with cotton, and then to sterilize it by means of dry heat at a temperature of 300° F. for fifteen minutes. Several firms[1] prepare hermetically sealed glass tubes of sterilized salt and cocain according to Bodine's formula, each tube containing 2 4/5 gr. (0.18 gm.) of sodium chlorid and 1 gr. (0.065 gm.) of cocain muriate. The contents of one of these tubes dissolved in an ounce (30 c.c.) of sterile water gives approximately a 1 to 500 solution of cocain in normal salt solution.

Solutions of cocain used in the following strength will be found amply strong for the purpose for which they are recommended. For anesthetizing the skin and for perineural injections, a 1 to 500 (1/5 of 1 per cent.) solution; for deeper infiltration, a 1 to 1000 (1/10 of 1 per cent.) solution; for massive infiltration, a 1 to 3000 (1/30 of 1 per cent.) solution; and for endoneural injections, 10 to 30♏ (0.6 to 1.90 c.c.) of a 1 to 200 (1/2 of 1 per cent.) solution are employed. Schleich has three solutions containing a combination of cocain, morphin, and sodium chlorid:

[1] Parke, Davis & Co., and Squibbs.

	No. 1, strong.	No. 2, medium.	No. 3, weak.
Cocain hydrochlorate.	gr. 3 (0.195 gm.)	gr. 1 1/2 (0.097 gm.)	gr. 1/6 (0.0108 gm.)
Morphin hydrochlorate.	gr. 2/5 (0.026 gm.)	gr. 2/5 (0.026 gm.)	gr. 2/5 (0.026 gm.)
Chlorid of sodium.	gr. 3 (0.195 gm.)	gr. 3 (0.195 gm.)	gr. 3 (0.195 gm.)
Distilled sterilized water.	oz. 3 2/5 (100 c.c.)	oz. 3 2/5 (100 c.c.)	oz. 3 2/5 (100 c.c.)

The strong solution is used for the skin, perineural injections, etc. An ounce (30 c.c.) may be used without risk. Of the medium strength solution, used for ordinary infiltration of the tissues below the skin, two ounces (59 c.c.) may be used; while as much as twenty ounces (591 c.c.) of the weaker solution, which is employed for massive infiltration of large areas, may be safely injected. Tablets according to the Schleich formulæ may be obtained from most pharmacists, with full directions for the preparation of a solution of any given strength. Schleich's solutions find favor with many operators, but personally the writer prefers to administer the morphin separately in a definite dose by hypodermic half an hour before operation.

The addition of adrenalin chlorid to the cocain solution, as advocated by Braun, is of distinct advantage. Adrenalin is a vasoconstrictor and has the same effect in the way of an adjunct to local anesthesia as constriction of the part has, increasing as well as prolonging the anesthetic effects. At the same time, by preventing capillary oozing, it gives a much drier field of operation. With its use there is some danger of secondary hemorrhage if the large blood-vessels are not properly secured, since, owing to its styptic action, even arteries of some size may be prevented from bleeding at the time and so be overlooked. It is a good rule, therefore, to at least clamp any vessel that bleeds, however slightly, when using adrenalin. From five to ten minims (0.3 to 0.6 c.c.) of the 1 to 1000 solution of adrenalin chlorid is added to the cocain and salt solution before it is to be used.

The Conduction of the Operation.—It may not be out of place at this time to say a few words about the proper conduction of an operation under local anesthesia. The successful and satisfactory employment of local anesthesia depends upon an intelligent appreciation of its limitations, upon the experience and skill of the operator, and upon an accurate knowledge of the sensory nerve supply in any given region.

These are essential. Much also depends upon the temperament of the operator and upon his method of operating. For this reason, with some operators, the use of local anesthesia will be impossible; with others, it will necessitate a radical change in their operative technic. A nervous fidgety operator, in a hurry to get through his work, will never find much to encourage him in attempts to employ local anesthesia in major surgery.

It is important, in the first place, to make the patient as comfortable as possible upon the operating-table. Operations under local anesthesia consume considerable time, and it is a hardship to keep a conscious patient upon the ordinary hard-topped operating-table for an hour or more. Several thicknesses of blanket, an air mattress, or a layer of soft pillows placed upon the table, will add much to the patient's comfort, as well as to the peace of mind of the operator. The patient should always be recumbent, and a comfortable, relaxed attitude should be assumed, with the arms folded over the chest or clasped above the head. While washing the patient in preparation for the operation, it should be borne in mind that the patient is conscious and great gentleness should be employed in the process. Care should also be taken not to soak the patient with large quantities of solution and leave him lying in a chilly pool for the remainder of the operation.

With very nervous individuals, it is well to keep the instruments covered from view and to avoid all reference to knives, scissors, etc. In fact, strict silence should be enjoined upon all. The patient's mental attitude can be further influenced to advantage by observing a quiet demeanor in the operating-room, by the avoidance of haste, and by a most careful handling of the tissues. Clean-cut dissection only is allowable in operations under local anesthesia. Rough manipulations, or tearing of the tissues, or unnecessary pulling with retractors by an awkward assistant, is often sufficient to cause restlessness and apprehension on the part of the patient, a state of mind which, if produced in the early part of an operation, rapidly changes to complete demoralization, and renders the chances of completing the operation without the aid of a general anesthetic very small. Rough wiping of the wound is likewise to be avoided. In fact, in every move and step the aim of the operator should be extreme gentleness. Neglect in observing these small and apparently trivial details is responsible for many of the failures with local anesthesia, and often results in condemnation of the method, though the fault lies with the operator.

THE PRODUCTION OF LOCAL ANESTHESIA BY COLD.

The anesthetic properties of intense cold have long been recognized and utilized in minor surgery. The tissues may readily be frozen sufficiently for anesthetic purposes by the application of salt and ice, or by spraying the part with some rapidly evaporating chemical, such as ether, rhigoline, or ethyl chlorid. The tissues as a result become blanched, and a superficial anesthesia is produced, which persists but a few minutes. This form of anesthesia has a very small field of usefulness, and is only suitable for small incisions or punctures; even in these cases the method is open to the objection that the tissues become so hard that it is difficult to cut through them at times, and any dissection is out of the question. Furthermore, the thawing out process is attended with more or less pain. Freezing often lowers the vitality of the tissues to such an extent that sloughing results; especially is this so when applied to the tissues of poorly nourished individuals.

Ethyl chlorid is now used almost exclusively for the purpose of freezing, and is both quick and effective. It is obtained in glass tubes with one end drawn out to a fine point and furnished with a spring tip (Fig. 36) or with a screw cap. The method of application is extremely simple. The tube is uncovered and held inverted in the hand at a distance of 12 to 18 inches (30 to 45 cm.) from the surface of the skin. Under the heating influence of the hand the liquid is forced out of the container upon the tissue in a fine jet or spray. Rapid evaporation occurs, and, in about thirty seconds, the skin becomes white and sufficiently frozen to be devoid of sensation.

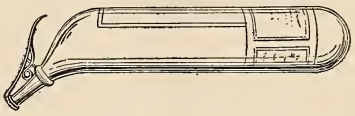


Fig. 36.—Ethyl chlorid spray tube.

THE SURFACE APPLICATION OF ANESTHETIC DRUGS.

Cocain and other drugs with similar anesthetic action may be applied to mucous surfaces (1) by instillation, as in the eyes, bladder, urethra, etc.; (2) by means of a spray or atomizer, as in the mouth or nose; and (3) upon swabs or compresses, either in solution or in crystals. Only the surface of the mucous membranes is anesthetized in this way, but a number of operations not involving the deeper tissues, such as the removal of polypi or small tumors, and opening of infections may thus be performed.

For operations about the eye, a drop or two of a 2 to 4 per cent. solu-

tion of cocain is instilled into the eye every ten minutes until three or four drops have been given.

Local anesthesia of the nasal mucous membrane may be produced by applying a 4 per cent. solution of cocain upon swabs of cotton directly to the part to be anesthetized. Spraying the solution into the nostrils is not so desirable, as the solution is liable to run down into the pharynx through the posterior nares and produce a very unpleasant sensation in the throat, and, at the same time, the amount of solution necessary to produce anesthesia being larger, the danger of poisoning is greater. To increase the effectiveness of the cocain and obtain a bloodless field of operation, a spray of a 1 to 1000 adrenalin solution may be employed after the cocainization.

In the larynx cocain may be applied more freely without danger than is the case when it is applied to the nasal mucous membrane. Small quantities of a 10 per cent. solution may be applied by means of a spray, or, better, applied directly to the desired spot on a swab, with the aid of a laryngeal mirror.

The urethra may be sufficiently anesthetized by filling it with a 0.2 per cent. cocain and adrenalin solution, introduced by means of an instillation syringe or catheter. The solution should be confined in the urethra for at least fifteen minutes, by holding the meatus closed.

For the bladder, a 0.1 per cent. cocain and adrenalin solution is sufficient. Five ounces (150 c.c.) of such a solution to which is added twenty drops (1.25 c.c.) of adrenalin is slowly introduced warm by means of a catheter, the bladder having been previously irrigated. The operator should then wait fifteen to twenty minutes for the drug to take effect.

INFILTRATION ANESTHESIA.

Infiltration anesthesia was devised by Schleich after a series of careful experiments with salt solutions of different strengths, combined with minute quantities of morphin, cocain, and carbolic acid. From his work has been evolved the weak cocain solution, as used at the present time, which has made possible the safe employment of cocain in really extensive operations.

By infiltration is meant the production of analgesia in a part by edematization of the tissues with weak anesthetic solutions. The fluid is introduced into the tissues, carefully avoiding important vascular structures, without particular reference to the nerve trunks. The resulting anesthesia is partly due to the direct action of the drug

upon the nerve endings, partly to the pressure of the fluid, and also to the interference with the blood supply. The anesthesia may be increased and indefinitely prolonged if the circulation be kept stationary by some form of constriction applied to the part, centrally to the seat

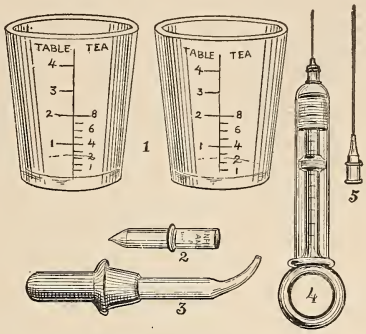


FIG. 37.—Apparatus for infiltration.

1, Medicine glasses for cocain solutions; 2, ampule of sterile cocain and salt crystals; 3, dropper for adrenalin; 4, syringe armed with a short needle; 5, long fine needle for deep infiltration.

of injection, or by incorporating in the fluid infiltrated vasoconstrictor drugs like adrenalin. With the infiltration method of anesthesia it is absolutely necessary to thoroughly edematize or literally pack the tissues with the anesthesic fluid, for, without this, the weak solution employed would be worthless.

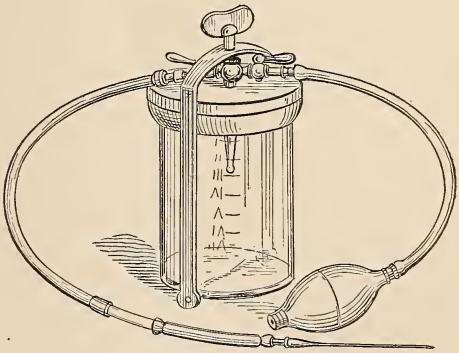


FIG. 38.—The Matas massive infiltrator.

Apparatus.—For the purposes of ordinary infiltration the 60ɱ (3.75 c.c.) or the 10 c.c. (2 3/4 dram) sub-Q syringe is the best. This syringe has a solid glass barrel and glass piston with asbestos packing, and can be readily sterilized, and is cheap. Several of these syringes should be on hand for the operation, and are to be kept filled

in readiness, so that the infiltration can be carried on rapidly without waiting to recharge the same syringe. The needles should be sharp and fine, with a very short bevel, and they should fit the syringe without any leakage at the joint. It will be convenient to have a short needle, 1 inch (2.5 cm.) long, for skin infiltration, and a second one, 2 to 2 1/2 inches (5 to 6 cm.) long, for deeper infiltrations.

For massive infiltration a large syringe or a special apparatus which will allow a continuous and rapid infiltration of the tissues is more satisfactory. The Matas infiltrator (Fig. 38) consists of a heavy glass graduated receptacle for the solution with an air-tight screw cap. Into this cap is fitted a T-tube with two stopcocks, one for the introduction of air, and one for the escape of the fluid. A rubber inflating apparatus is attached to the first cock, and to the other is a needle connected by a suitable length of hose. The reservoir is filled about three-fourths full and is then charged with air, and the bulb and tubing are removed. Infiltration is performed by inverting the apparatus and opening the outflow stopcock. Several needles of different lengths, shapes, and sizes are provided with this instrument. The author uses an infiltrator made on much the same principles as the Matas instrument. It consists of a long graduated glass cylinder capable of holding 10 ounces (300 c.c.), with an outlet at the bottom and a rubber stopper fastened in the top by a clamp. A small glass tube connected with an inflating bulb passes through this stopper (Fig. 39). The reservoir is almost filled with the solution, leaving about one quarter for air space, and the instrument is charged with sufficient air to cause the fluid to flow through the needle in a strong stream.

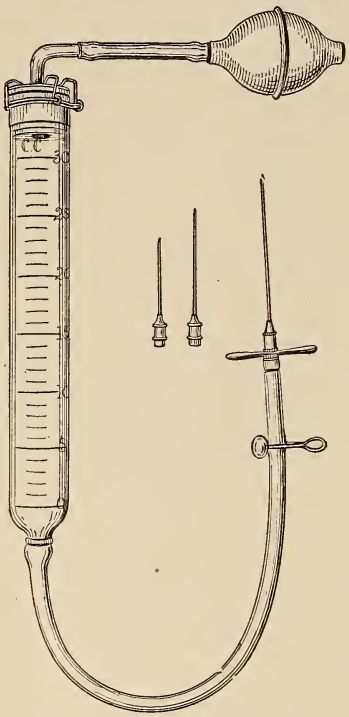


Fig. 39.—The author's apparatus for massive infiltration.

Technic.—In all cases where an extensive or at all prolonged operation is contemplated, unless contraindicated, morphin, gr. 1/4 (0.0162 gm.), should be given hypodermically half an hour before

operation. For the skin infiltration, a warm 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain in normal salt solution is used. The syringe is filled with solution and the needle is shown to the patient with an explanation of just what is intended to be done. This is necessary in order to avoid

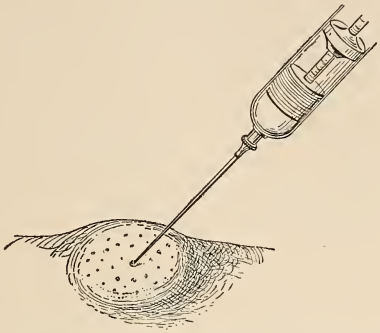


FIG. 40.—Showing the method of infiltrating the skin. The needle is inserted in such a way that, with the injection of a few drops of solution, a wheal the size of a ten-cent piece is produced.

an often unexpected shock from the first prick of the needle. The needle, *held almost parallel to the surface*, is pushed into the skin just beneath the epidermis—*not beneath the skin*—so as to anesthetize the sensitive end organs. If the needle lies properly, its point will be almost visible just below the skin surface. A few drops of solution

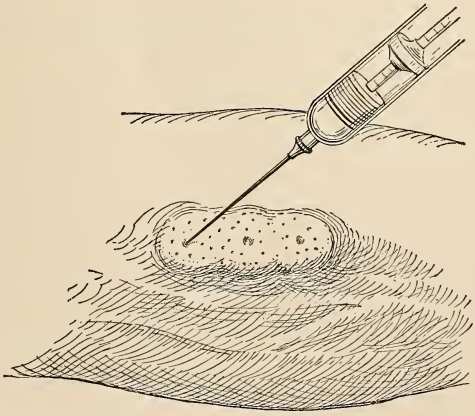


FIG. 41.—Showing the reinsertion of the needle into the edge of the wheal.

are injected and the skin becomes blanched and raised into a wheal about the size of a ten-cent piece (Fig. 40). The needle is then reinserted into the *edge of the wheal* and more solution injected in the same manner, until the entire line of the proposed incision is one

continuous wheal (Fig. 41). In this way, only the first prick of the needle is felt by the patient.

The subcutaneous tissue, which is in itself insensitive but carries sensitive nerve trunks and blood-vessels, is next very thoroughly infiltrated, using a longer and somewhat larger needle. For this purpose a 1 to 1000 solution for ordinary cases and a 1 to 3000 to 1 to 10000 solution for massive infiltration of large areas is used. The needle is inserted into the line of the skin cocainization, and the solution is injected in all directions from the point, so as to practically surround the area of proposed incision with anesthetic solution. Special care is taken to thoroughly infiltrate known sensitive regions, as, for instance, in the

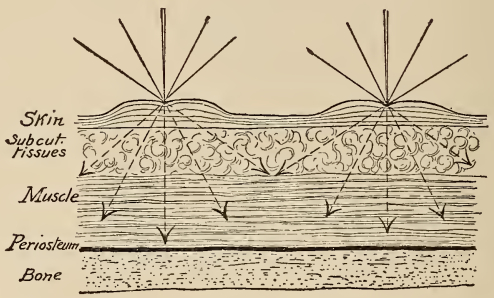


Fig. 42.—Showing the directions in which the needle should be inserted in massive infiltration of deep structures.

operation for inguinal hernia about the external ring where the main nerve trunks break up into their terminal filaments. In the case of an operation upon a circumscribed growth, the infiltration is carried out in such a way as to completely encircle the diseased area and isolate it from nerve communication with the surrounding parts. In like manner fascia, muscles, down to or including the periosteum, may be infiltrated in a mass, after the method of Matas (Fig. 42), or each structure separately as they are exposed during the course of the operation. Muscle, tendon, bone, and cartilage have no sensation, but their coverings are extremely sensitive; hence particular care must be taken to infiltrate fascia, muscle, and tendon sheaths, periosteum, and joint capsules, and when operating upon joints to cocainize the synovial membranes by a preliminary instillation of weak cocain solution into the joint before operation. With proper infiltration the whole field is thoroughly edematized and is changed into a tumor-like mass that is perfectly anesthetic.

While the infiltration method is carried out without any attempt to specially cocainize nerve trunks, they should nevertheless be injected

after the method to be described whenever they are encountered during the operation.

Upon an extremity, more complete and prolonged anesthesia may be obtained if, after infiltration, stasis of the circulation is produced by means of elastic constriction applied centrally to the seat of infiltration (Fig. 43). In such a case, where large quantities of solution are

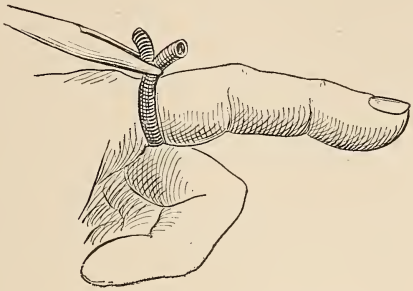


FIG. 43.—Showing the application of a constricting band to the finger in order to prolong and intensify the anesthesia.

used and remain in the tissues when the operation is completed, it is a wise precaution to loosen the constriction gradually and intermittently, so as not to rapidly flood the system with a large volume of cocain solution.

ENDO- AND PERINEURAL INFILTRATION.

The discovery that injections of cocain and similar analgesics into the tissues surrounding a nerve (perineural infiltration) or directly into it (endoneural infiltration) will effectually block the particular nerve and produce anesthesia in the entire area of its distribution has made possible many operations of magnitude, such as those for hernia, amputations, etc. Successful nerve blocking presupposes an accurate knowledge of the course and distribution of the sensory nerves. It may be performed at a distance from the seat of operation by injecting the cocain solution around the nerve, or by cutting down and exposing the nerve before injection; or the cocainization may be performed by separately injecting each nerve as it is exposed during the course of the operation. The action of the cocain is intensified and indefinitely prolonged by arresting the circulation in the injected and anesthetized nerve trunks by means of elastic constriction, as already spoken of under infiltration, and to a lesser degree by the addition of adrenalin to the analgesic solution.

The perineural method of infiltration is more suited to regions supplied by the smaller superficial nerves and to the smaller extremities, as the fingers and toes. For anesthetizing the larger nerve trunks with thick sheaths, direct injection of the nerves as they are exposed in the field of operation, or at some point along the course of the nerve central to the seat of operation, will give more certain results. When a region is supplied by several nerves, each will have to be separately isolated and blocked.

Apparatus.—The ordinary 60♏ (3.75 c.c.) or 10 c.c. (2 3/4 dr.) "Sub-Q" syringe, with a fairly long needle will be found most satisfactory.

Technic.—In the perineural method of infiltration the analgesic solution is injected in such a way as to surround the nerve trunk or "envelop the nerve in an anesthetic atmosphere," as Matas expresses it. A spot in the skin from which the nerve can be reached with the hypo-

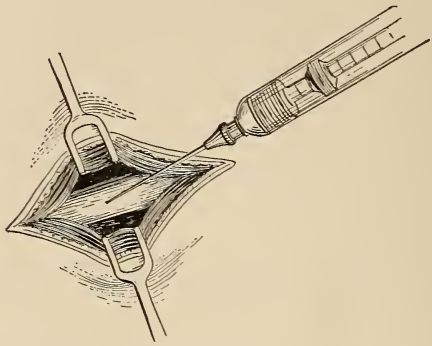


FIG. 44.—Method of infiltrating a large nerve trunk. The anesthetic solution should be injected into the nerve in all directions so that the entire nerve is rendered anesthetic below the point of injection.

dermic needle is infiltrated as already described, and through this area the needle is inserted toward the known location of the particular nerve to be anesthetized. The syringe is charged with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain, and from 15 to 20 drops (0.92 to 1.9 c.c.) are injected into the tissues surrounding the nerve. The solution is allowed to become diffused, and then, if the nerve be in an extremity, the part is exsanguinated by elevation and an elastic constriction is applied centrally to intensify and prolong the anesthesia. In a few moments the entire region supplied by the blocked nerve becomes insensible. It may happen that, in regions where constriction is inapplicable, the anesthesia may not be sufficiently prolonged, and it will be necessary to repeat the injection more than once to maintain the anesthesia.

In the endoneural method of anesthesia, if the nerves are injected in the field of operation, the technic is very simple, the individual nerves being infiltrated with a few drops of a 0.5 per cent. solution of cocain as they are exposed. When the injection is made at a point distal to the seat of operation the nerve is first exposed by dissection under infiltration anesthesia and is then thoroughly infiltrated with a 0.5 per cent. solution of cocain, the fluid being injected into all portions of the nerve so that an entire transverse section is thoroughly blocked (Fig. 44). Other nerves supplying the region of operation are similarly dealt with. The part is then exsanguinated by elevation and the elastic constriction is applied centrally to the point of injection. In a short time all sensation below the seat of injection becomes benumbed, and operations of any magnitude may be performed.

Practical Application of Infiltration, Endo- and Perineural Methods of Anesthesia to Special Localities.—The methods of locally anesthetizing a part just described all have their special indications. The operator should not employ one method to the exclusion of the others, but should make his selection so as to successfully meet the indications in a particular case. In a certain proportion of the cases infiltration alone will suffice; in the others, the nerve blocking can be used to better advantage; but in the majority of extensive operations it will be found that a combination of infiltration with endoneural injections is essential to a successful anesthesia in a given region. A brief description of the application of these methods to different regions of the body will furnish some idea as to the scope and capabilities of each.

The Head.—Operations upon the scalp, such as wound suture, the removal of tumors, cysts, etc., and even procedures requiring incision of the periosteum and opening into the brain, may be performed painlessly under a combination of infiltration and perineural anesthesia. An accurate knowledge of the nerve supply of the region is essential, however.

Briefly, the scalp has the following nerve supply (Fig. 45). The small occipital and great occipital nerves together supply the whole posterior part of the scalp as far forward as the vertex. The great auricular nerve supplies the mastoid region, as does also the small occipital. The parietal portion of the scalp receives its supply from the auriculotemporal and a branch of the temporomalar. The supratrochlear branch of the frontal nerve supplies the integument of the lower part of the forehead on either side of the median line. The supraorbital supplies the cranium over the frontal and parietal bones.

Blocking these nerves by cross strips of infiltration at the points where they penetrate the muscular fascia and become subcutaneous (Fig. 46), or performing a thorough circumscribed infiltration around the area of operation, with infiltration of the periosteum, if necessary, renders many cases amenable to local measures which are now performed under general narcosis. Constriction by means of a rubber tourniquet passed around the forehead above the ears and over the occipital protuberance will be found most useful as an aid to anesthesia.

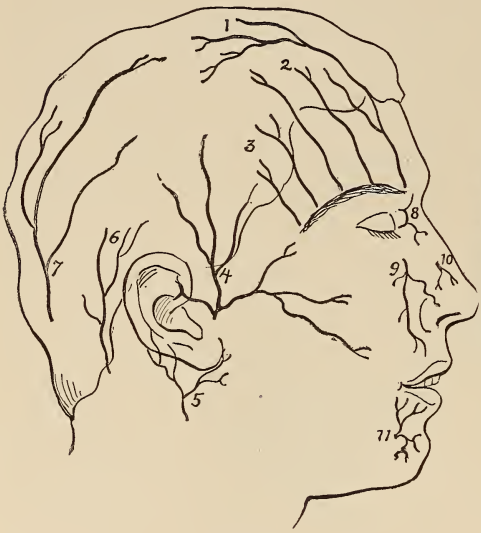


Fig. 45.

Fig. 46.

Fig. 45.—The superficial nerves of the scalp and face. 1, Supratrochlear nerve; 2, supraorbital nerve; 3, temporal branch of the temporomalar nerve; 4, auriculotemporal nerve; 5, great auricular nerve; 6, small occipital nerve; 7, great occipital nerve; 8, infratrochlear nerve; 9, infraorbital nerve; 10, nasal nerve; 11, mental nerve.

Fig. 46.—Showing the area of anesthesia after blocking the supratrochlear, supraorbital, and mental nerves. The dots indicate the points for infiltration.

About the lips, chin, nose, cheeks, tongue, mouth, and lower jaw local means of anesthesia are often quite sufficient. Blocking of the mental nerve as it emerges from the mental foramen will render insensitive the region of the chin and the skin and mucous membrane of the lower lip of the same side (see Fig. 46). In like manner the upper lip may be anesthetized by cocainization of the infraorbital nerves. The inferior dental nerve is readily reached for blocking as it enters the inferior dental foramen at the outer side of the spine of Spix. This point lies near the median line of the internal surface of the ramus of the jaw about half an inch (1 cm.) above the upper surface

of the last molar tooth. The lower jaw may be thus anesthetized and teeth may be painlessly extracted. The lingual nerve may be perineurally infiltrated at about the same point, as it lies close to the inferior dental. The floor of the mouth and the tongue are thus rendered insensitive, and quite extensive operations may be performed. Infiltration alone, however, is often sufficient in the smaller operations about the lips and mouth.

The Neck.—Operations about the neck for the removal of benign growths, isolated freely movable glands, or for the ligation of vessels are performed by infiltration of the lines of incision combined with

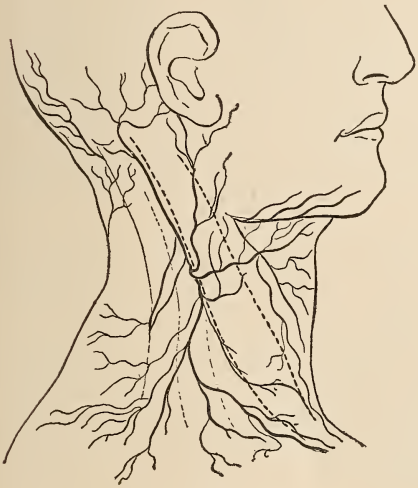


Fig. 47.

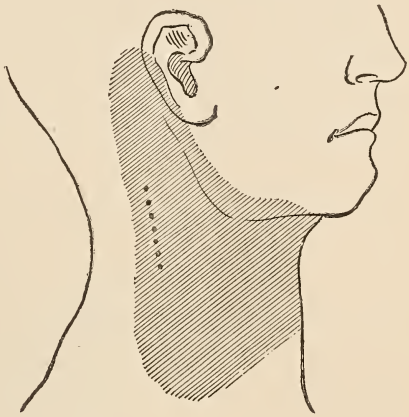


Fig. 48.

Fig. 47.—The superficial cervical plexus. The dotted lines indicate the course of the sternomastoid muscle.

Fig. 48.—Showing the area of anesthesia after blocking the superficial cervical plexus. The dots indicate the points for infiltrating.

massive infiltration of the surrounding tissues. As already mentioned, thyroidectomy and tracheotomy may be carried out by following the same principles. In superficial operations upon the anterior and posterior triangles, perineural blocking by a cross strip of infiltration, or direct injection of the superficial branches of the cervical plexus as they escape from the posterior border of the sternomastoid muscle at or about its middle will be of great aid (Fig. 48). Operations upon the larynx may be performed under infiltration anesthesia combined with blocking of the superior laryngeal nerve at the tip of the greater cornu of the hyoid bone .

The Thorax.—Exploratory punctures, aspiration of the pericardium and pleura, rib resection for empyema, and the removal of benign growths from the breast may all be satisfactorily carried out under infiltration. In the operation of rib resection the infiltration should be carried out layer by layer, including the periosteum. Perineural blocking of the intercostal nerves as they pass between the intercostal muscles in the upper portion of the intercostal space, or endoneural injection of each nerve as it is exposed, will assist in rendering the operation painless where more than one rib is to be resected. After the periosteum over the rib is incised and reflected, the rib may be exsected without pain. The parietal pleura, like the peritoneum, is very sensitive and requires infiltration before incision.

The Upper Extremity.—Almost any operation may be performed in this region under a skilful use of local anesthesia. Exposing the brachial plexus under infiltration anesthesia above the clavicle (Fig. 49) and blocking each branch separately by direct injection with a 0.5 per cent. solution of cocain destroys all sensation in the area below

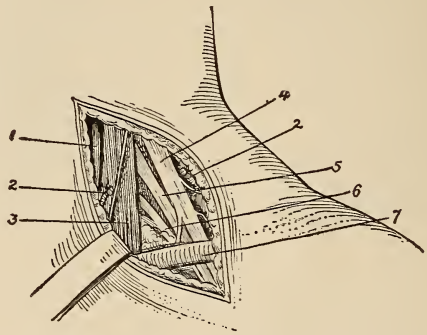


Fig. 49.—Exposure of the brachial plexus for infiltration.
1, External jugular vein; 2, transversalis colli artery; 3, scalenus anticus muscle; 4, fifth cervical root; 5, sixth cervical root; 6, seventh cervical root; 7, clavicle.

the point of injection, and amputations or other operations may be performed at any level below the seat of injection. In shoulder-girdle amputations, however, infiltration of the lines of incision also should be performed in order to block small branches from the cervical plexus, *i.e.*, the supraacromial and suprascapular nerves.

Operations upon the forearm require blocking of the median, ulnar, and musculospiral nerves. This may be done by directly injecting all three nerves after exposure under infiltration anesthesia in the upper portion of the arm or by separately exposing and blocking each nerve just above the elbow. In following the latter method, the median nerve

is exposed by an incision across the elbow to the inner side of the biceps muscle, the brachial artery lying just external to it; the ulnar, in the groove between the internal condyle and the olecranon; and the mus-

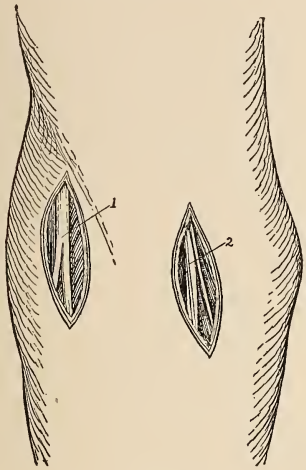


FIG. 50.

FIG. 51.

FIG. 50.—Exposure of the musculospiral and median nerves at the elbow. 1, Musculospiral nerve; 2, median nerve.

FIG. 51.—Exposure of the ulnar nerve just above the internal condyle.

culospiral, between the biceps tendon and the supinator longus muscle. Blocking each nerve with a 0.5 per cent. solution of cocain produces complete insensibility of the extremity below the point of injection excepting the skin and subcutaneous tissues of the upper central

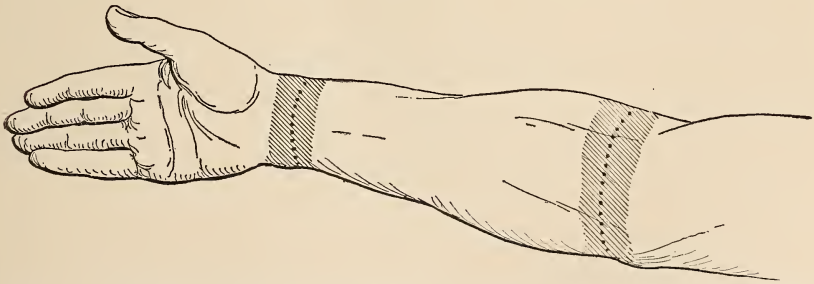


FIG. 52.—Showing the method of anesthetizing the small superficial nerves by circular strips of subcutaneous infiltration.

portion of the forearm, supplied by the musculocutaneous and internal cutaneous nerves. A circular area of subcutaneous infiltration, at the elbow, however, as advised by Matas, abolishes any remaining sensibility in this region (Fig. 52).

Just above the wrist, the median, ulnar, and radial nerves are available for perineural injection. The median is reached by introducing the needle to the ulnar side of the tendon of the palmaris longus and inserting it obliquely for a distance of 1/2 to 3/4 inch (1 to 2 cm.) in the direction of the radius. The ulnar nerve may be anesthetized perineurally a little above the head of the ulna by inserting the needle to a depth of about 4/5 inch (2 cm.) between the ulna and the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris. The radial nerve and its branches are best caught by a cross strip of subcutaneous infiltration just above the

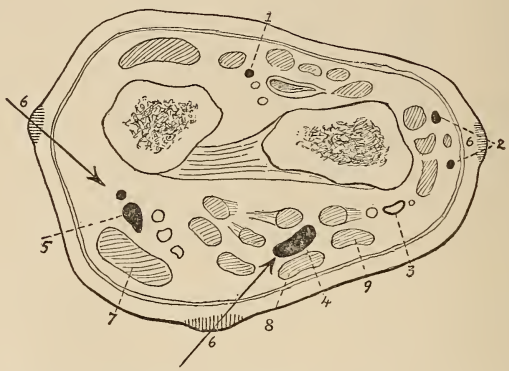


FIG. 53.—Cross-section of the forearm above the wrist showing the direction of the needle for perineural infiltration of the ulnar and median nerves. (After Braun.)

1, Interosseus nerve; 2, radial nerve; 3, radial artery; 4, median nerve; 5, ulnar nerve; 6, areas of skin infiltration; 7, flexor carpi ulnaris tendon; 8, palmaris longus tendon; 9, flexor carpi radialis tendon.

styloid process of the radius (Fig. 53). Perineural injection alone for operations upon the wrist is not satisfactory, as this region is also supplied by small branches given off from these nerves higher up. A circular strip of subcutaneous infiltration above the wrist, however, will render the anesthesia complete (see Fig. 52). In thin individuals, massive circular infiltration alone is generally sufficient to produce anesthesia below the site of injection.

Anesthesia of the fingers is obtained by infiltrating two points in the skin on the dorsal surface near the base of each finger (Fig. 54). Through these points the needle is inserted toward each of the four digital nerves, and the anesthetic solution injected (Fig. 55). All nerve communication is thus blocked and the finger may be incised, amputated, etc., without pain. By injecting in the known location of the digital nerves as they pass between the metacarpal bones, the bases of the fingers and even the metacarpals may be anesthetized.

The Abdomen.—The abdomen may be opened in any region by simple infiltration, combined with endoneural injection of nerves as they are exposed. The skin, the subcutaneous tissues, the fasciæ, the

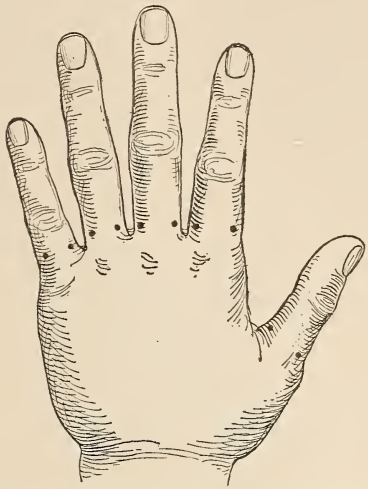


FIG. 54.—Points for inserting the needle in perineural infiltration of the digital nerves.

muscular layers, and the periosteum should be separately infiltrated, layer by layer. The limitations of local anesthesia in abdominal surgery have already been considered (page 69) and will not be reiterated here.

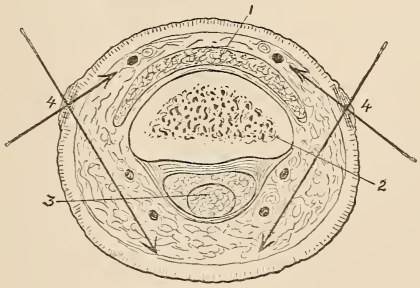


FIG. 55.—Cross-section of the finger showing the direction of the needle for perineural infiltration of the digital nerves. (After Braun.)
1, Extensor tendons; 2, bone; 3, flexor tendons; 4, areas of skin infiltration.

Hernia.—While operations for hernia of any variety may be carried out under local anesthesia, the inguinal will be found especially suited to this method of anesthesia, the umbilical and femoral varieties less so.

For inguinal hernia a combination of infiltration and endoneural injection is possible on account of the anatomical arrangement of the inguinal region, which is supplied by three fairly large nerve trunks having a rather constant course—namely, the iliohypogastric, the ilioinguinal, and the genitocrural. The iliohypogastric will be found in the upper angle of the hernial incision after reflecting the aponeurosis of the external oblique, usually running downward and inward on a line drawn from about the anterior-superior spine to a

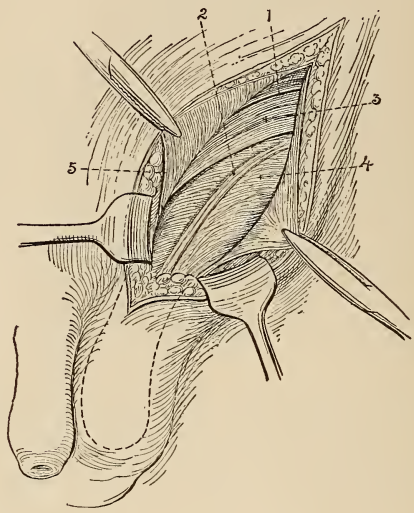


Fig. 56.—Showing the nerve supply of the inguinal region. (After Cushing.)
1, Iliohypogastric nerve; 2, ilioinguinal nerve; 3, conjoined tendon; 4, cremaster muscle; 5, aponeurosis of the external oblique incised and edges reflected.

point an inch (2.5 cm.) above the external ring. The ilioinguinal will usually be found in the line of incision just beneath the aponeurosis of the external oblique, and on a lower level than the iliohypogastric, running downward in the long axis of the hernia (Fig. 56). It may even lie as far out as Poupart's ligament. This nerve is often smaller than the iliohypogastric, and in some cases it may be absent, in which event its place is taken by the genitocrural. The genitocrural will be found after reflecting the aponeurosis of the external oblique lying among the structures of the cord, and frequently it lies behind the cord. Infiltration anesthesia is employed until the aponeurosis of the external oblique is reflected, when the above nerves are separately blocked. In performing the infiltration, especial care should be taken to inject plenty of solution in the region of the external ring where the nerves break up into their terminal filaments. After the nerves are properly

blocked, the remainder of the operation may be painlessly performed without the use of additional cocain, though it is better to infiltrate about the neck of the sac before ligating and removing that structure. Omentum may be amputated, adhesions within the sac separated, and gut resected if necessary, without pain.

Femoral hernia may be operated on under simple infiltration of the skin, subcutaneous tissues, and sac; or, preferably, by a combination of infiltration and endoneural injection. If this latter method is employed, the incision is placed so as to expose in addition the external abdominal ring. The aponeurosis of the external oblique is thus exposed and is incised for a short distance, so that the ilioinguinal and genitocrural nerves may be identified and injected. Blocking of these nerves, combined with infiltration, renders the field of operation more nearly anesthetic than infiltration alone.

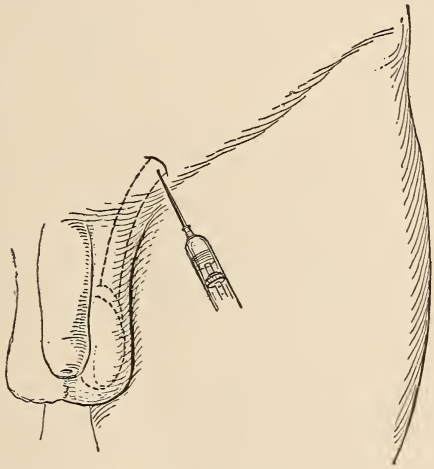


FIG. 57.—Showing the method of infiltrating about the cord in operations upon the testicle.

In operations for umbilical and ventral hernias, the infiltration method is employed. The structures are separately injected, as would be done for an abdominal operation, taking special care to thoroughly infiltrate about the neck of the sac.

The Scrotum.—Any of the operations about the scrotum and testicles, such as those for varicocele, hydrocele, castration, etc., may be carried out by perineural injection around the cord as it escapes from the external ring (Fig. 57), combined with infiltration along the site of incision.

Penis and Urethra.—Circumcision may be performed by infiltrating the skin and mucous membranes along the lines of proposed incision,

being careful to infiltrate the frenum thoroughly. More extensive operations upon the pendulus portion may be performed by subcutaneous infiltration of a ring about the base of the penis, carefully injecting the solution around each of the dorsal nerves. External urethrotomy may be performed under infiltration combined with topical anesthesia of the mucous membrane (see page 76).

Rectum and Anus.—The limitations of local anesthesia in rectal operations have been previously pointed out. For the removal of external hemorrhoids, skin tabs, etc., injecting a small amount of anesthetic solution into the base of the growth is sufficient. When it is necessary to stretch the sphincter, anesthesia may be obtained in the following manner: Four wheals are made in the skin—in front, behind,

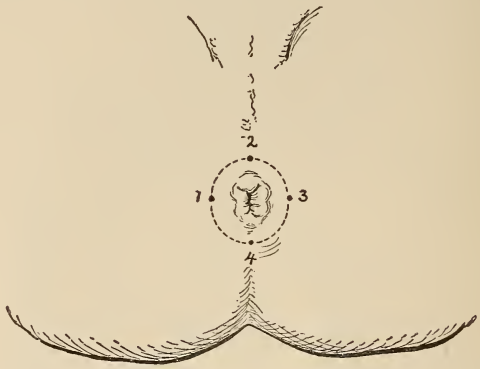


Fig. 58.—Points for injection in infiltration about the anus.

and at the sides (Fig. 58)—and through these points the hypodermic needle, guided by a finger in the rectum, is carried up along the bowel and the sphincter is thoroughly infiltrated.

Lower Extremity.—Exposure under infiltration anesthesia and blocking of the anterior crural, the external cutaneous, and the sciatic nerves, combined with a circular strip of subcutaneous infiltration, completely blocks all sensation in the lower extremity below the level of the "block," and amputations can thus be performed as high as the lower and middle thirds of the thigh. Above this point, however, the nerve supply is complicated and it will be necessary to massively infiltrate along the line of incision as well as to "block" the nerve trunks already mentioned. The external cutaneous nerve[1] may be reached

[1] Nystroem describes (*Centralblatt f. Chirurgie*, 1909) a method of skin-grafting under local anesthesia by taking the grafts from the outer side of the thigh after obtaining anesthesia in this region by perineurally infiltrating the external cutaneous nerve at the inner side of the anterior superior spine.

for injection by an incision so placed as to expose the nerve as it emerges from under the anterior superior spine (Fig. 59). The anterior crural nerve may be exposed by an incision placed about 1/2 inch (1

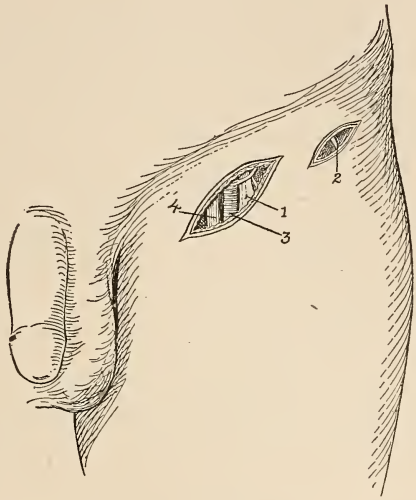


FIG. 59.—Exposure of the anterior crural and external cutaneous nerves for injection. 1, Anterior crural nerve; 2, external cutaneous nerve; 3, femoral artery; 4, femoral vein.

cm.) external to the center of Poupart's ligament. The nerve will be found just external to the femoral artery. The sciatic may be exposed at the lower border of the gluteus maximus muscle, or at the upper bor-

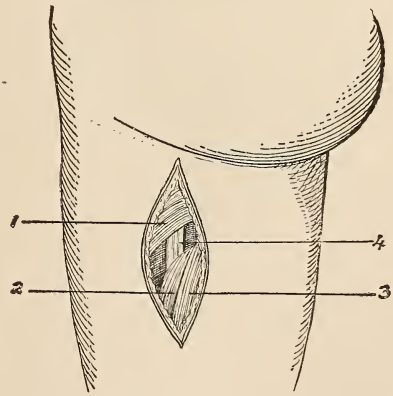


FIG. 60.—Exposure of the sciatic nerve in the upper part of the thigh for injection. 1, Gluteus maximus muscle; 2, biceps muscle; 3, semitendinosus muscle; 4, sciatic nerve.

der of the popliteal space. In the former case, an incision 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) long is made between the tuberosity of the ischium and the great trochanter, with its center over the lower margin of the gluteus

maximus muscles. By retracting the gluteus maximus upward and the ham-string muscles inward, the nerve will be found lying under the outer edge of the biceps muscle (Fig. 60). In the upper portion of the

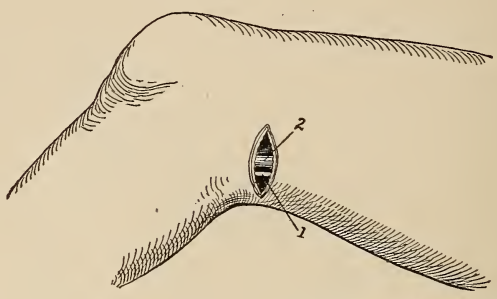


FIG. 61.—Exposure of the internal saphenous nerve for injection.
1, Internal saphenous nerve; 2, internal saphenous vein.

popliteal space the nerve may be exposed by a vertical incision in the mid-line; it will be found lying between the biceps and semimembranosus muscles. It should be injected before it divides, or else both the

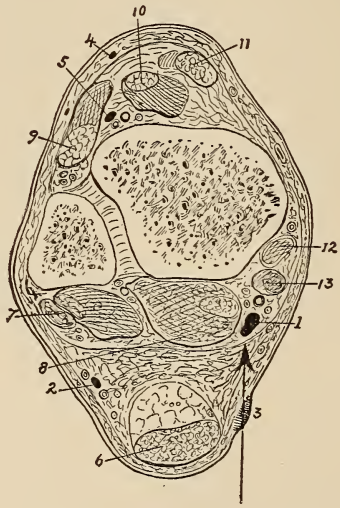


FIG. 62.—Cross-section of the leg above the ankle-joint, showing the direction of the needle for perineural infiltration of the posterior tibial nerve. (After Braun.)
1, Posterior tibial nerve; 2, external saphenous nerve; 3, area of skin infiltration; 4, musculocutaneous nerve; 5, anterior tibial nerve; 6, tendo achillis; 7, peronei muscles; 8, flexor longus hallucis; 9, extensor longus digitorum; 10, extensor longus hallucis; 11, tibialis anticus; 12, tibialis posticus; 13, flexor longus digitorum.

internal and external popliteal nerves are to be blocked. In operations below the tubercle of the tibia, it is unnecessary to block the anterior crural and external cutaneous; blocking of the sciatic in the popliteal

space and of the external saphenous as it passes to the inner and posterior aspect of the knee-joint is sufficient (Fig. 61).

Below the knee, the large nerves are not available for injection until the ankle is reached. Behind the ankle the posterior tibial may be perineurally injected by inserting the needle on the inner side of the tendo achillis directly forward almost to the posterior surface of the tibia (Fig. 62). The anterior tibial may be likewise perineurally injected by inserting the needle on the dorsum of the ankle between the tendons of the tibialis anticus and the extensor longus hallucis and the innermost tendon of the extensor longus digitorum. By a circular strip of subcutaneous infiltration, the remainder of the sensory nerve supply may be blocked and complete anesthesia of the foot may be obtained.

In anesthetizing the digits and metatarsals, the same principles already described for the hand are applicable. Amputations of toes, operations for ingrowing toe-nail, osteotomy for hallux valgus, etc., may be readily performed under perineural injection of the proper nerves.

BIER'S VENOUS ANESTHESIA.

Quite recently Bier has developed an innovation in the production of local anesthesia in extremities, termed venous anesthesia. It consists essentially in rendering the limb bloodless and, after isolating the field of operation from the circulation by means of tourniquets applied above and below the area to be anesthetized, injecting the anesthetic solution into one of the veins between the two tourniquets. What is termed "direct anesthesia" rapidly develops between the two bandages; while somewhat later, after the anesthetic solution has had time to act upon and paralyze the nerve trunks within the isolated area, the anesthesia extends to the entire limb beyond the bandage. This is termed "indirect anesthesia."

Venous anesthesia, of course, is applicable only to the extremities, and it is not intended that it should supplant the ordinary methods of local anesthesia which are sufficient for the superficial tissues; its special field is for major operations, such as amputations, resection of joints, and operations upon bones, muscles, tendons, etc. According to its originator, diabetic gangrene and arteriosclerosis are contraindications to its use.

While this method of anesthesia is too new to have received a thorough trial in the hands of different operators, it has been thoroughly

tested by its originator and by him is considered to be far ahead of the other methods for producing local anesthesia. Bier reports (*Berliner klinische Wochenschrift*, March 19, 1909) 134 operations under venous anesthesia, including amputations, arthrotomies, bone suture,

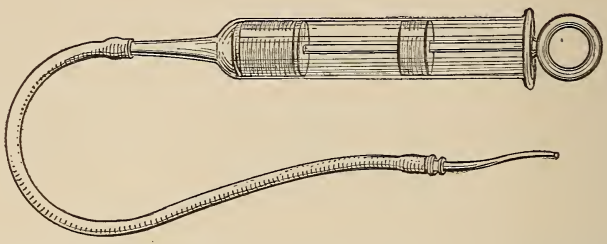


FIG. 63.—Cannula and syringe for injecting the solution in venous anesthesia.

extirpation of varicose veins, etc., and of this total in 115 cases the anesthesia was perfect, in fourteen satisfactory, and in five unsatisfactory. Of the latter, however, three were operations upon children. In four cases in which the writer has employed this method the anesthesia was all that could be desired.

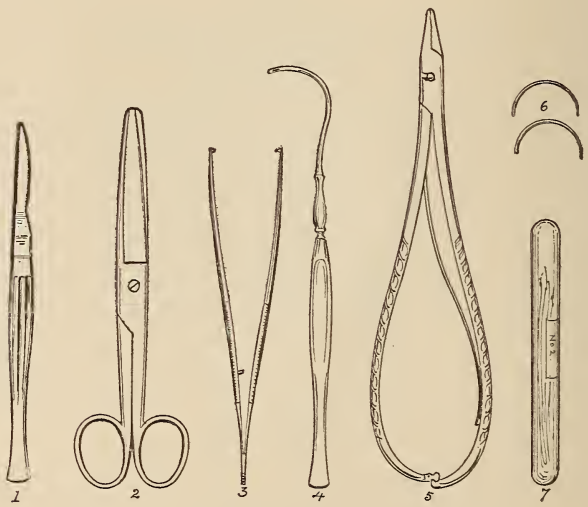


FIG. 64.—Instruments for venous anesthesia.
1, Scalpel; 2, blunt-pointed scissors; 3, thumb forceps; 4, aneurysm needle; 5, needle holder; 6, curved needles; 7, No. 2 plain catgut.

Apparatus.—An infusion cannula, a syringe, such as the Sub-Q or the Janet, with a capacity of about 3 ounces (89 c.c.) and supplied with a short heavy piece of rubber tubing for connection with the cannula (Fig. 63), a hemostat to clamp the rubber tubing, and

three rubber bandages, each 2½ inches (6 cm.) wide and 6 feet (180 cm.) long, will be required.

Instruments.—Instruments necessary for an ordinary infusion are required; namely, a scalpel, mouse-toothed thumb forceps, a pair of blunt-pointed scissors, an aneurysm needle, needle holder, two curved needles with a cutting-edge, and No. 2 plain catgut (Fig. 64).

Solution.—Bier employs a 0.5 per cent. solution of novocain in normal salt solution.

Quantity Used.—From 20 to 60 c.c. (5 1/2 drams to 2 ounces) of solution are ordinarily injected, depending upon the extent of the area to be anesthetized. The quantity employed should not, however, exceed 2 3/4 ounces (80 c.c.).

Site of Injection.—For the arm, the basilic vein and for the leg the internal saphenous vein is usually chosen, though any of their tributaries sufficiently large for the purpose will answer.

Preparations.—The site of injection is carefully cleansed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury and then sterile water. The instruments are boiled, and the operator's hands cleansed as for any operation.

Technic.—The limb is first elevated and rendered bloodless by the application of an Esmarch bandage applied from the extremity

Fig. 65.—Bier's venous anesthesia. Showing the application of the bandages and the site of injection+.

of the limb up to a point well above the site of injection. Some care should be taken to apply this bandage properly as it is necessary that the veins be thoroughly emptied. Two tourniquets are then applied, one at a point above the operative field and the other below, by wrapping soft rubber bandages about the limb in broad bands so as not to cause the patient any unnecessary discomfort. The first bandage is then removed. Under infiltration anesthesia with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain, one of the main subcutaneous veins or one of its large tributaries is exposed in the proximal part of the isolated area (Fig. 65). The vein is opened by cutting with scissors, and the cannula is secured in its distal end. The syringe, filled with

the solution, is then attached to the cannula and the desired quantity of the anesthetic is injected under considerable pressure toward the periphery,[1] *i.e.*, against the valves of the veins, escape of the anesthetic solution being prevented by clamping the rubber tubing with a hemostat. In this way the anesthetic solution is distributed through the tissues between the two tourniquets and is brought in contact with the nerve trunks and nerve endings of the whole area, producing complete anesthesia of all the tissues.

Direct anesthesia follows between the bandages in three to five minutes, and indirect anesthesia beyond the distal bandage is observed in six to twenty minutes. As a rule, some motor paralysis occurs in the anesthetized area, but it soon disappears after removal of the bandages. While a large portion of the anesthetic solution escapes from the wound during the operation, it is advisable at the completion of the operation, before suturing the wound, to gradually loosen the distal tourniquet, but not the central one, so as to permit the veins to fill up and force out the anesthetic solution. As an added precaution, when large amounts of solution have been employed, the veins may be thoroughly washed out with saline solution through the same cannula used to inject the anesthetic.

Variations in Technic.—Following Bier's lead, others have injected local anesthetics into the arterial system instead of into a vein. Thus Goyanes (*Centralblatt für Chirurgie*, 1909, Vol. XXVI) describes a method of regional anesthesia by the injection of the anesthetic solution into an artery. The solution is injected into the vessel between Esmarch bandages in a manner very similar to the method of Bier.

Ransohoff (*Annals of Surgery*, April, 1910) describes a method of terminal arterial anesthesia obtained by injecting cocain solution into an artery supplying the area of operation. He reports two cases in which the method was employed, as well as a number of experiments upon animals which would seem to show that it is a safe and efficient procedure in suitable cases. He recommends this method as being especially applicable to operations upon the upper extremity where the brachial, ulnar, or radial artery may be exposed without difficulty and in operations upon the foot or ankle after exposure of the anterior tibial artery.

Ransohoff's technic is as follows: "The main artery supplying the part to be anesthetized is exposed under infiltration anesthesia. An Esmarch strap is now bound about the limb some distance

[1] Bier in a later communication (*Edinburg Medical Journal*, Aug., 1910) states that he has lately made the injection centrally, opening the vein close to the distal bandage.

above the point of proposed injection into the artery. The Esmarch should be used as in the Bier hyperemic treatment; that is, snug enough to constrict the veins, but not so tight as to interfere with the arterial circulation. From 4 to 8 c.c. (1 to 2 dr.) of a 0.5 per cent. solution of cocain in normal salt solution should be injected into the artery in the direction of the blood stream. The needle used should be as fine as possible. After anesthesia is complete, the Esmarch may be tightened if perfect hemostasis is desired."

It is claimed that the cocain thus introduced is carried by the capillaries to the individual nerve endings and the solution is diffused through the capillary walls into the surrounding tissues so that little, if any, solution is returned to the general circulation. The writer has had no experience with the arterial method.

SPINAL ANESTHESIA.

This form of anesthesia is produced by injecting weak solutions of cocain or allied drugs into the subarachnoid space. Cocainization of the spinal cord was first suggested by Corning in 1885. Bier, in 1899, improved upon the method and made it practicable for surgical purposes.

The enthusiasm with which spinal anesthesia was first received has, however, proved unwarranted by practical results. The mortality is higher than from ether or chloroform, and it is not absolutely certain that permanent harm to the cord may not result. Certainly, cases have been reported which would suggest such a possibility. In a certain percentage of the cases anesthesia does not develop or is incomplete, and at times most unpleasant symptoms accompany the anesthesia; headache, nausea, vomiting, sweating, chills, rise of temperature, or collapse are by no means rare. Spinal anesthesia has a place in surgery, without doubt, but it should be reserved for those exceptional cases in which general anesthesia is contraindicated or other methods of local anesthesia are impracticable.

Injections have been made in all portions of the cord, but for practical surgical purposes they are now limited to the lumbar region. The danger of inducing respiratory paralysis is too great to warrant the introduction of cocain into the higher regions of the cord.

Solutions Used.—All the various local anesthetics have been used. Cocain may be used in a 2 per cent. solution in normal salt solution, 10 to 40 ♏ (0.6 to 2.50 c.c.) of such a solution, containing between 1/5 and 1 gr. (0.01296 and 0.065 gm.) of cocain, are injected. The

addition of a few drops of a 1 to 1000 solution of adrenalin chlorid to the cocain is said to be of great benefit, preventing the effusion of the anesthetic to the brain, and many of the unpleasant after-effects.

Eucain B is safer than the cocain, but it is not so effective. Its solution can be boiled.

Stovain is also less toxic and is very highly recommended by many authorities. A 5 per cent. solution is used, the dose being 3/4 to 1 gr. (0.0486 to 0.065 gm.).

Novocain is also frequently employed. It is about seven times less poisonous than cocain. A 5 per cent. solution in normal salt solution is employed. The ordinary dose is from 3/4 to 1 1/2 gr. (0.0486 to 0.0974) gm.).

Tropacocain is another substitute for cocain, frequently used, and the anesthesia is more lasting. At the present time, it is the anesthetic most frequently employed for spinal anesthesia. It is given in a dose of from 1/2 to 1 gr. (0.0324 to 0.065 gm.) in a 5 per cent. solution.

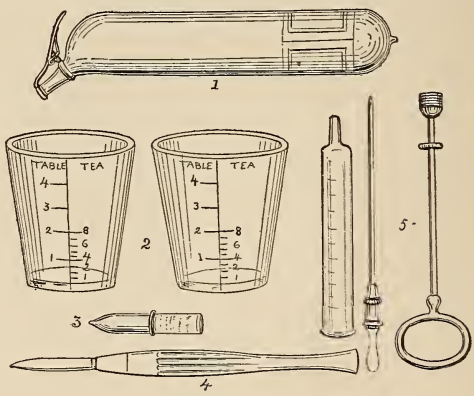


FIG. 66.—Apparatus for spinal anesthesia.

1, Ethyl chlorid; 2, medicine glasses, one for receiving the spinal fluid and the other for the anesthetic solution; 3, ampule containing sterile cocain and salt crystals; 4, scalpel; 5, syringe and trocar.

The injection of a solution of Epsom salt has lately been advocated by Meltzer, Haubold, and others. Sixteen minims (1 c.c.) of a 25 per cent. solution are given for every 25 pounds of body weight. Three to four hours after the injection paralysis and analgesia in the legs and pelvic regions appear and persist for from eight to fourteen hours. It is claimed that overdosage endangers life from respiratory paralysis.

Apparatus.—A special stylet needle and an appropriate syringe with capacity of about 1 1/3 drams (5 c.c.) should be provided. The needle

should be 1/25 of an inch (1 mm.) in diameter, and about 3 3/4 inches (9.5 cm.) long. The stylet must be ground to a point with the needle and should fit the latter accurately at the point, to avoid carrying in fragments of tissue as it traverses the flesh. It is important that the point of needle be not too long—the more transversely it is ground the better. With a short-pointed needle the liability of injecting only a portion of the solution into the canal and part outside the subarachnoid space is quite remote. In addition, a scalpel for making the preliminary puncture and sterilized medicine glasses for holding the solution to be injected should be provided (Fig. 66).

Location of the Puncture.—Any of the spaces between the second lumbar and the first sacral vertebræ is available for the puncture, but the usual site is between the third and fourth, or the fourth and fifth lumbar vertebræ (Fig. 67). The spaces may be identified by counting down from the seventh cervical vertebra. If this is difficult on account of

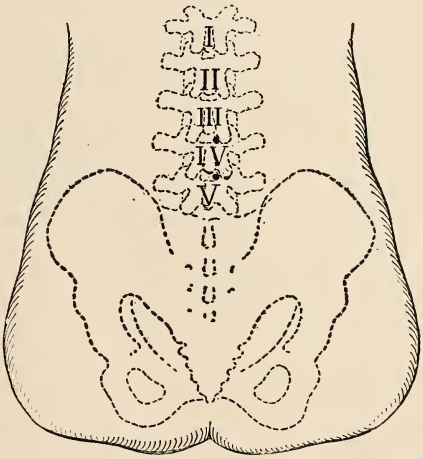


Fig. 67.—Points for injecting the anesthetic solution in spinal anesthesia.

excess of fat, the fourth lumbar spinous process may be readily located, and from it the other vertebræ, by passing a line between the highest points of the iliac crests. Such a line passes through the tip of the spinous process of the fourth lumbar vertebra (Fig. 68). A point on either side of the spinal column half an inch (1 cm.) from the median line is chosen, and starting from this point the needle is passed upward and inward toward the median line between the spinous processes. The average space available for the puncture between the bones in the lumbar portion of the cord is 18/25 to 4/5 inch (18 to 20 mm.) in the transverse, and 2/5 to 3/5 inch (10 to 15 mm.) in the vertical diameter.

Preparation.—The operation should be performed with the greatest aseptic care. The needle and syringe should always be boiled, the solution injected must be sterile, and the operator's hands and site of

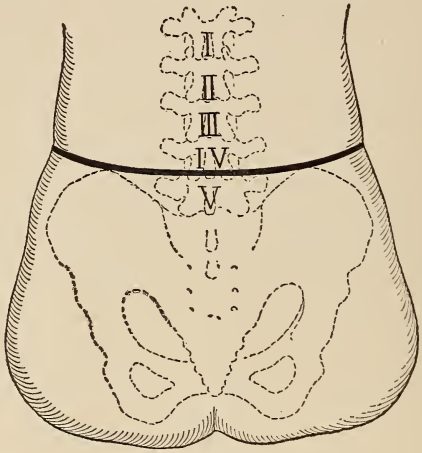


Fig. 68.—Showing the method of locating the fourth spinous process by passing a line through the highest points of the iliac crests.

operation should be prepared with all the care that would be observed in any operation.

Position of the Patient.—The body of the patient is curved well forward so as to widen the intervertebral spaces as much as possible.

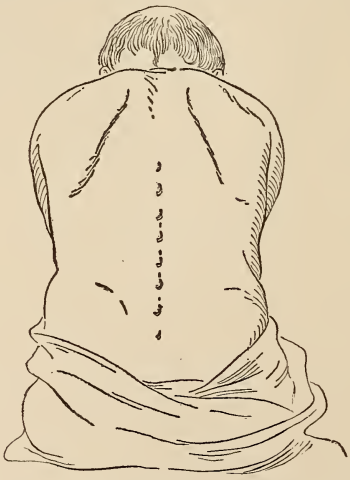


Fig. 69.—Sitting position for spinal puncture.

For this purpose the patient sits up, leaning well forward, with his back to the operator (Fig. 69), or else lies upon one side with the back in the form of an arch (Fig. 70).

Technic.—The spot chosen for the puncture is anesthetized with ethyl chlorid or a few drops of cocain, and a small puncture is made in the skin with a scalpel (Fig. 71), to lessen the dangers of carrying in infection with the needle. The operator places his finger as a guide

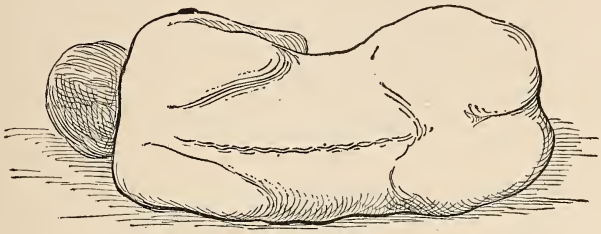


FIG. 70.—Lateral position for spinal puncture.

between the two spinous processes bounding the space for the puncture, and inserts the needle upward and inward toward the median line until it enters the subarachnoid space (Fig. 72). Lessened resistance, followed by the escape of the fluid from the needle, determines when this

FIG. 71.

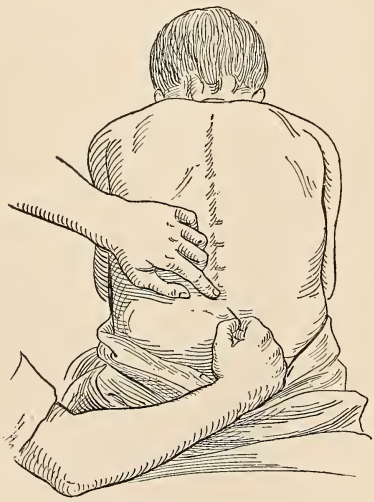


FIG. 72.

FIG. 71.—Spinal anesthesia. First step, nicking the skin at the site of puncture.
FIG. 72.—Spinal anesthesia. Second step, inserting the needle.

is accomplished. The distance necessary to be traversed varies from 1 to 1 1/2 inches (3 to 4 cm.) in a child, 2 1/2 to 3 inches (6 to 8 cm.) in an adult. In inserting the needle, if it strikes bone, it should be withdrawn slightly and its direction changed. A quantity of cerebro-

spinal fluid, corresponding to the amount of anesthetic to be injected, should be allowed to escape before the analgesic solution is introduced (Fig. 74). This will vary from 10 to 40♏ (0.6 to 2.50 c.c.), according

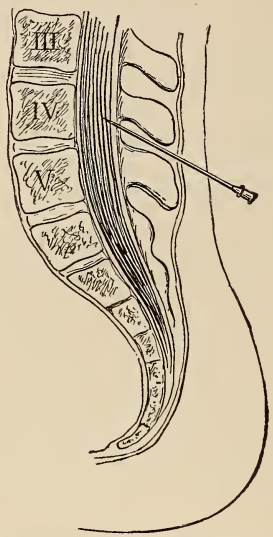


FIG. 73.—Showing the direction of the needle in entering the spinal canal.

FIG. 74.

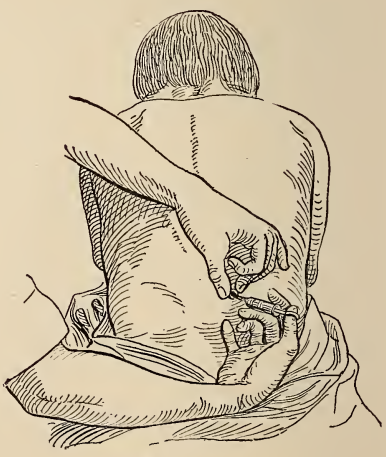


FIG. 75.

FIG. 74.—Spinal anesthesia. Third step, allowing the cerebrospinal fluid to escape.
FIG. 75.—Spinal anesthesia. Fourth step, injecting the anesthetic solution.

to the strength of the solution to be used. Some operators prefer to dissolve the analgesic agent in the cerebrospinal fluid withdrawn and reinject the solution thus formed. The solution should always be

slowly introduced (Fig. 75). The needle is then withdrawn and the puncture sealed with collodion and cotton, or is dressed with a piece of gauze held in place by adhesive plaster. As soon as the injection is completed the patient lies down. The anesthetic solution thus mixes with the cerebrospinal fluid in the subarachnoid space and has a chance to act upon the intradural nerve trunks and roots.

In from ten to fifteen minutes loss of sensation, often accompanied by muscular paralysis, takes place. The anesthesia becomes marked first in the anal and perineal regions, and then in the lower extremities, being limited above, as a rule, to a zone not higher than the waist line. With a successful injection, any operation about the lower extremities, the anus, perineum, or pelvis may be readily performed. The anesthesia thus obtained persists for two hours or longer.

CHAPTER III.

SPHYGMOMANOMETRY.

Sphygmomanometry is the instrumental estimation of arterial blood pressure. The determination of blood pressure has become a subject of such practical importance that both physicians and surgeons should be familiar with the technic. In certain cases it is often of the greatest value in making a diagnosis, as well as in the prognosis and as a guide to the treatment. It is especially valuable in surgical work in determining the fitness of a subject for anesthesia (see also page 20) and during an operation in revealing impending danger from shock or weakening heart. For the latter purposes it should be employed as a routine in all serious operations likely to be attended by shock or considerable hemorrhage.

The instrument employed for estimating blood pressure consists essentially of a hollow rubber band for compression of an artery, connected with a mercury manometer and inflating bulb. The amount of pressure necessary to obliterate the pulse distal to the point of constriction measured in millimeters of mercury represents the blood pressure. This is far more accurate than the usual method of palpating the pulse. Both systolic and disastolic pressure should be taken when it is possible, but of the two the determination of the systolic pressure is of most importance, as pathological conditions affect it more than the diastolic.

The average normal systolic pressure obtained with the wide (12 cm.) armlet, according to Janeway, is as follows:

For children up to two years,	75– 90 mm. of mercury
For children over two years,	90–110 mm. of mercury
For adults,	100–130 mm. of mercury

In females the pressure is about 10 mm. less than in males. After middle life the pressure generally reads higher—often as high as 145 mm. A systolic pressure between 145 and 90 mm. in an adult may, therefore, be considered within the limits of health. If, on repeated examinations, the pressure registers above or below these limits, it should be viewed with suspicion. A pressure above 200 mm. is considered very high and below 70 mm. very low, while below 45 to 40 mm. the pulse can

rarely be recognized. The diastolic pressure normally registers 25 to 40 mm. less than the systolic. If the difference between the two is less than 20 mm. or more than 50 mm., it indicates, in the first instance, an abnormally small pulse and, in the latter case, an abnormally large pulse.

As blood pressure is dependent upon the quantity and velocity of the blood entering the circulation with the contraction of the left ventricle, and on the resistance in the peripheral arteries, it can be readily seen that it may be subject to considerable variation in health and may be modified by many circumstances. Anything which increases one or other of these factors will raise the blood pressure and *vice versa.* Thus a recent meal, fear, anxiety, self-consciousness, mental application, pain, drugs which act upon the vascular system, such as camphor, caffein, strychnin, digitalis, adrenalin, etc., increase blood pressure. Smoking likewise increases it if it has a stimulating effect, but causes it to fall if it depresses. Exercise has the same effect, that is, it increases pressure unless it is carried to exhaustion, when the pressure falls. The posture of the individual also modifies the pressure reading, it being 10 to 15 mm. higher with the person standing than when lying down. Likewise, the pressure is generally higher in the afternoon. The size of the encircling band is also important, the narrow bands giving a higher reading than the broad ones. Furthermore, as the estimation of pressure depends on the tactile sense of the individual palpating the pulse, the pressure readings in the same patient will vary somewhat with different observers. Therefore, to avoid these sources of error and obtain readings of value for comparison, the determination of pressure should always be made by the same observer, under the same conditions, at the same time of day, with the patient in the same position, and at rest mentally and physically, and employing the same size armlet.

Instruments.—There have been a number of excellent sphygmomanometers devised, such as the Riva Rocci, Stanton, Erlander, Janeway, Hill and Barnard, etc. A few of these will be described.

The Riva Rocci sphygmomanometer (Fig. 76), as modified by Cook, consists of a portable manometer with a jointed tube and scale reading up to 320 mm. The armlet consists of a rubber bag 4 1/2 inches (11.5 cm.) wide by 16 inches (40 cm.) long, covered with canvas, and supplied with hooks and eyes for fastening it in place. A Richardson double inflating bulb is connected with the armlet, and also with the manometer by means of a glass T-tube and rubber tubing. A second glass T-tube is inserted in the rubber tubing near the manometer, to

the long arm of which is attached a short rubber tube supplied with a pinchcock, for the purpose of releasing the pressure.

Stanton's instrument (Fig. 77) consists of a rubber compression armlet 4 1/2 inches (11.5 cm.) wide by 16 inches (40 cm.) long, inclosed in a cuff of leather or thick canvas reinforced by tin strips. In the center of the cuff is cemented a glass tube 1/4 inch (6 mm.) in diameter. The manometer consists of a metal cistern connected by a metal tube with a glass mercury tube having a scale registering to 300 mm. The metal cistern is provided with a screw cap having a

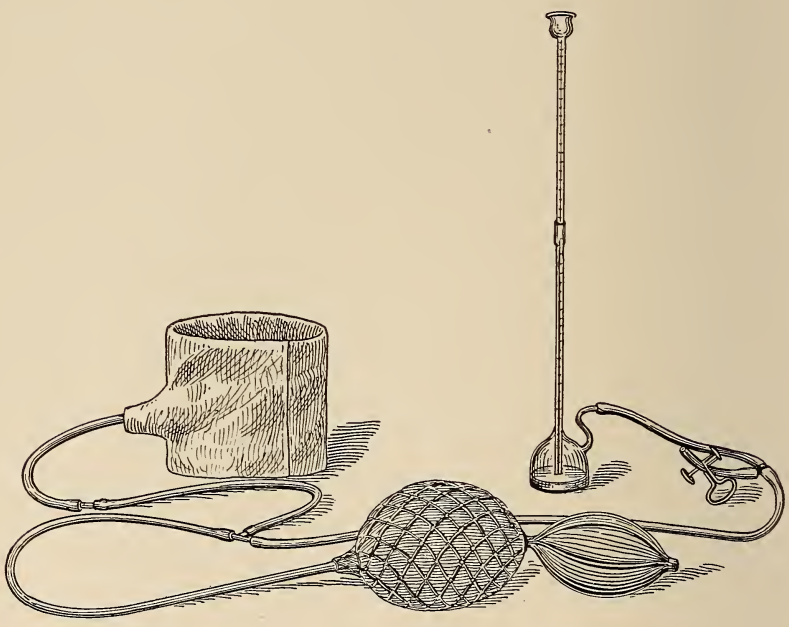


Fig. 76.—The Riva Rocci Sphygmomanometer.

T-shaped metal tube, one arm of which is connected with the armlet and the other with the inflating apparatus, which consists of a double inflating bulb. At the top of the metal cistern is a screw valve for the gradual release of pressure, and on the arm connected with the inflating apparatus is a stopcock to shut off the inflation.

Janeway's instrument (Fig. 78) consists of a U-shaped manometer with a sliding scale, connected with a cistern, to one side of which is attached the armlet and to the other a Politzer bag for the purpose of inflation. The armlet is a closed rubber bag measuring 4 3/4 inches (12 cm.) in width and 18 inches (45 cm.) in length, inclosed in a leather

cuff that is fastened to the limb by means of two straps. A stopcock containing a needle valve for the release of pressure is interposed between the cistern and inflating bag. The instrument is unassembled for packing in its case as follows: The scale is slid down and the upper part of the manometer is removed and placed in rings provided for this purpose on the lid. The open end of the manometer is plugged by a small cork "A" and the other end is closed automatically when the

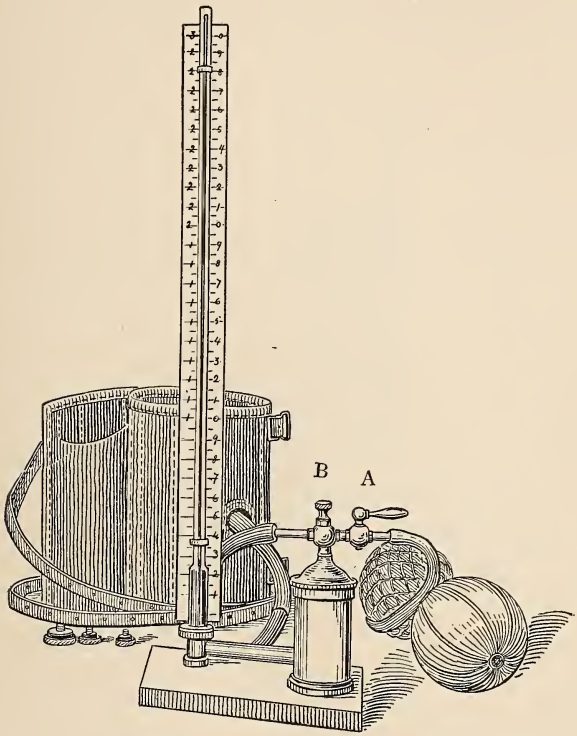


FIG. 77.—Stanton's Sphygmomanometer.

lid is shut by a block which compresses the rubber "B." The inflation bulb is removed, and, as the box shuts, the stopcock slips under a spring "C."

By means of the Stanton and Janeway instruments both systolic and diastolic pressure may be estimated, but for practical purpose determination of the systolic pressure is sufficient. Whatever form of instrument is employed, a wide armlet (4 1/2 to 4 3/4 inches (11.5 to 12 cm.)) should be used.

Site of Application.—The compression band may be applied to the arm or the thigh, the former being preferable.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be recumbent with the part subjected to pressure on a level with the heart.

Technic (*Riva Rocci Instrument*).—The armlet is fastened about the arm midway between the shoulder and elbow by passing the open end of the cuff beneath the band on the closed end and hooking it in place. The manometer is placed upon a table near by, and care is taken to see that the upper portion of the mercury tube is fitted securely in the top of the lower one and that the mercury is at the zero point. The inflating bulb is then properly connected with the armlet and manometer,

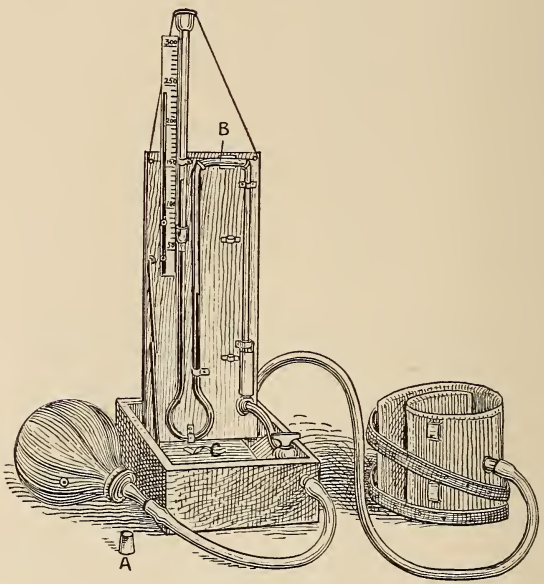


Fig. 78.—Janeway's Sphygmomanometer.

and the pinchcock is closed. The examiner, with the fingers of one hand palpating the patient's pulse, gradually inflates the armlet by squeezing the bulb with the other hand until the pressure obliterates the pulse, when the height of the mercury is noted. The mercury is then allowed to drop slowly until the pulse just reappears which represents the systolic pressure. For the sake of greater accuracy, this maneuver is repeated by squeezing and relaxing the reservoir bulb.

Stanton's Instrument.—The armlet is buckled in place and is connected with the manometer, the scale of which is adjusted so that the mercury registers zero. With the valve "B" closed and cock "A" open, and with the fingers of the operator on the patient's pulse, the armlet is slowly inflated until the pressure causes the pulse to disappear.

The inflation cock "A" is then closed and valve "B" is gradually opened until the pulse just reappears. The height of the mercury when this occurs represents the systolic pressure. The pressure is further slowly reduced a few millimeters at a time, and, as the mercury falls, its column oscillates up and down, increasing in size until a maximum is reached and then diminishing. The base-line of the maximum oscillations represents the diastolic pressure, which is normally 25 to 40 mm. below the systolic pressure.

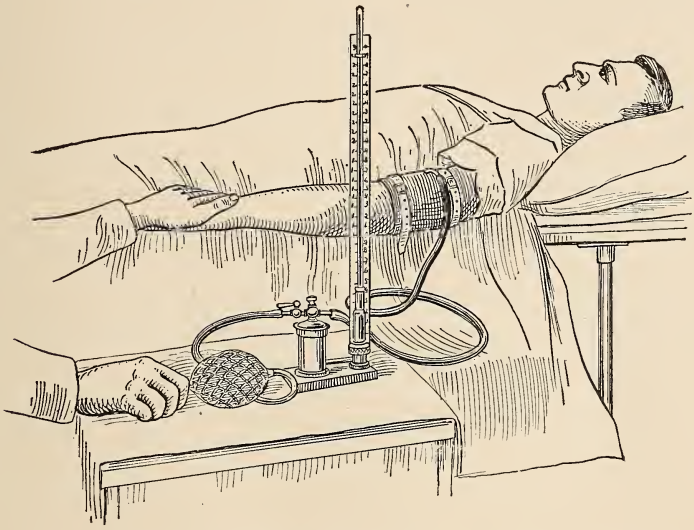


FIG. 79.—Technic of sphygmomanometry with the Stanton instrument.

Janeway's Instrument.—The armlet is properly secured about the limb as described above and the scale is so adjusted that the level of the two columns of mercury is at zero. With the fingers on the radial pulse the armlet is gradually inflated by compressing the bulb until the pulse disappears. Then, by slowly releasing the bulb until the pulse just returns, the systolic pressure is estimated. In cases of very high pressure, it may be necessary to employ more than one bulb full of air to obliterate the pulse. In such a case, the stopcock is closed, and, after the bag is refilled, the cock is opened again and the pressure raised as high as desired. The diastolic pressure is obtained in the same manner as described under the technic with the Stanton sphygmomanometer.

Variations of Blood Pressure in Disease.[1]—*Pain* of all kinds causes

[1]For a complete exposition of this phase of the subject the reader is referred to Janeway's "Clinical Study of Blood Pressure."

an increase in the peripheral resistance, and a rise in pressure. Thus, in conditions attended with severe pain, as in acute biliary or renal colic, during labor, in acute peritonitis, etc., the blood pressure is elevated. If, however, the patient is already in a weakened state or is suffering from shock, the addition of pain may cause a fall in pressure.

Wasting diseases, or cachectic conditions, as cancer, tuberculosis, etc., are as a rule accompanied by low pressure. In tuberculosis, if the pressure is normal or increased, it is looked upon as a good prognostic sign.

In infectious diseases low pressure is the rule. In typhoid fever a rapid drop is indicative of hemorrhage; if perforation occurs, there is a sudden rise in pressure.

Toxic conditions, such as lead poisoning, acute gout, uremia, eclampsia, exophthalmic goiter, etc., are accompanied by increased pressure through reflex vasomotor stimulation.

Renal Affections.—Acute nephritis may or may not produce elevation of pressure. The same is true of chronic parenchymatous nephritis, but in the chronic interstitial variety high pressure is the rule. In any variety, with the onset of uremic symptoms, the blood pressure rises, but falls as improvement in the condition sets in.

Cardiovascular Diseases.—In valvular lesions pressure may or may not be elevated; in fact, the results of blood pressure observations in this class of cases are too varied to be of value. In primary myocarditis the blood pressure is low, but when secondary to arterial or kidney disease it may be high. In arteriosclerosis the pressure is generally elevated, especially with hypertrophy of the left ventricle. Arteriosclerosis may exist, however, without elevation of pressure, and, if cardiac muscle insufficiency be present, the pressure may be below the normal.

Acute Peritonitis.—In the early stages, the pressure is abnormally high. A sharp rise may precede all other symptoms in the beginning of peritonitis from typhoid, appendicular, or other forms of perforation.

Head or Brain Injuries.—Blood pressure is increased in compression of the brain from depressed bone, extra- or subdural clots, abscess, tumors, fracture of the base, apoplexy, etc., in proportion to the degree of intracranial tension. In acute compression from hemorrhage a high and rising blood pressure indicates an increase in the bleeding and a progressive failure of the circulation in the medulla. When the paralytic stage of compression appears, the pressure falls. Low pressure is also found in concussion of the brain.

Hemorrhage.—The loss of considerable blood results in a rapid fall of pressure.

In shock and collapse a fall in blood pressure is uniformly present. According to Crile, in shock, the fall in pressure is gradual, while the term "collapse" should be limited to those conditions in which there is a sudden fall in blood pressure due to hemorrhage, injuries of the vasomotor centers, or to cardiac failure.

In Surgical Operations.—Ether causes a rise or else has no effect; even in large quantities, it rarely causes a fall. Chloroform, on the other hand, causes a fall in pressure. Nitrous oxid as a rule causes an increase in pressure.

Superficial cutting operations cause a rise through irritation of the peripheral nerves—irritation of the larger nerve trunks causing a greater rise. Opening the abdominal cavity likewise produces a rise followed by a fall, the degree depending upon the length of exposure of the viscera to the air, the amount of handling, separation of adhesions, and sponging.

Under local anesthesia alterations in blood pressure are less marked than when the same procedures are carried out under general anesthesia.

CHAPTER IV.

TRANSFUSION.

The term transfusion is applied to the transference of blood from the vessels of a healthy individual (the donor) to those of the patient (the recipient), while the term infusion is restricted to all cases in which other media than blood are so introduced.

There is good evidence from records of cases that transfusion has been practised for many centuries, but it was not until Lower, in 1665, and Denys, in 1667, published their results that the operation was used to any great extent. After this, it was employed for such a variety of purposes and so extravagent were the claims of its exponents that the French government prohibited its use, and it soon fell into disrepute. Early in the nineteenth century the operation was revived, and it became a recognized means of supplying the body with fluids to replace that lost from excessive hemorrhage, notably that occurring after childbirth.

The transfusion was either performed directly by means of glass cannulæ tied in the blood-vessels and joined by rubber tubing, or else indirectly, the blood being drawn from the donor, and, after first being defibrinated by whipping, the serum resulting was injected into the veins of the recipient. Frequently the blood of dissimilar species, such as sheep's blood, was employed. There were many accidents resulting from the use of alien blood, and from the employment of transfusion in an improper class of cases, to say nothing of the dangers of infection and of embolism to which the patient was exposed by the methods used, so that the results were variable and uncertain, and in some cases even fatal.

As the subject became more thoroughly studied and better understood, it was recognized that the blood of dissimilar species, through its faculty for breaking up the red blood-corpuscles, was impracticable and dangerous for the purpose of introduction into the human circulation, and that direct transfusion from artery to vein only was permissible. Furthermore, it was contended by many that transfusion was a failure outside of increasing the volume of fluid in the circulation, as the blood elements did not retain their vitality, and quickly died in the vessels of the receiver. Added to this, the uncertainty of blood-vessel anastomo-

sis as formerly practised and the fact that transfusion required the use of material and instruments often difficult to procure in an emergency, materially limited the usefulness of the operation, and it became less and less used. Finally, with the introductions of infusions of normal salt solution as a substitute, transfusion practically became extinct.

During the past ten years, largely through the work of Carrel, Crile, and others in this country, transfusion has been revived, and with the development of improved methods of blood-vessel anastomosis it has become a practical operation, the value of which in certain cases even outside of hemorrhage and shock seems to be well established, both experimentally and clinically.

Indications and Contraindications.—The principal indication for transfusion is severe hemorrhage. Crile has shown that if performed early enough it is a specific remedy. Experimentally he has successfully treated every degree of hemorrhage; dogs were even bled to the last drop that would flow and were then successfully transfused. Transfusion is also indicated in pathologic hemorrhage, where the coagulability of the blood is deficient, as in hemophilia, cholemia, and hemorrhage from the bowels, etc. In these cases the condition of the patient has been at least improved by the operation and in most cases the hemorrhage has been controlled. Some of the reported cases were transfused more than once before permanent improvement was noted.

For shock, according to Crile, transfusion is the best form of treatment we now possess. It exerts far greater influence on blood pressure than does saline solution. Both will raise blood pressure, but the latter will not maintain the rise in pressure. Transfusion, on the other hand, frequently raises the blood pressure above normal and will sustain it at a high level for a number of hours.

In illuminating-gas poisoning, where chemical changes occur which prevent the blood cells from giving up carbon dioxid and combining with oxygen, venesection followed by transfusion is the best treatment.

At present the value of transfusion in many other conditions, such as tuberculosis, chronic suppuration, acute infectious diseases, etc., is still undetermined, and we are not as yet fully informed as to what diseases contraindicate its use. There have been cases reported of fatal hemolysis after transfusion in pernicious anemia and in obscure blood diseases, which indicate that in some diseases at least transfusion of the blood of similar species even is accompanied by danger. Until we possess greater knowledge of the subject, caution should be observed against the indiscriminate employment of transfusion.

Tests for hemolysis should be made upon the donor and the recipient whenever possible. Hemolysis between the donor's corpuscles and the patient's serum is not necessarily harmful, but if it is found that there is reversed hemolysis, that is, if the donor's serum hemolyses the patient's corpuscles, another donor should be chosen. These tests, however, require twenty-four hours, so that in an emergency they are not available. Theoretically, agglutination of the red corpuscles and precipitation may also occur; though, according to Crile, in practice these changes may be disregarded.

Methods of Performing Transfusion.—An anastomosis between the artery of the donor and the vein of the recipient may be effected by means of the special tubes of Crile, or some of the modifications of these tubes,

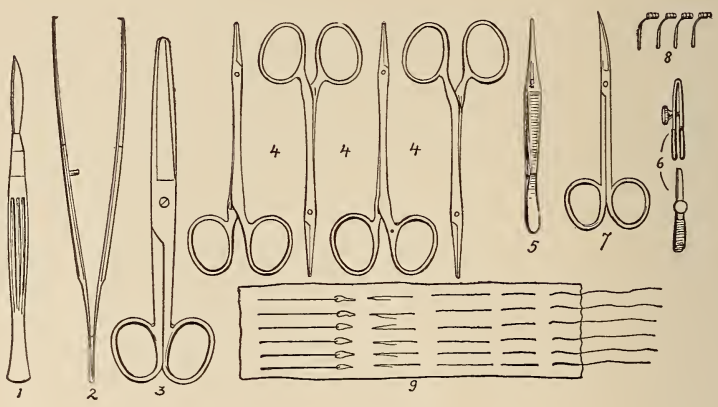


FIG. 80.—Instruments for transfusion.

1, Scalpel; 2, thumb forceps; 3, blunt-pointed scissors; 4, mosquito hemostats; 5, fine tissue forceps; 6, Crile clamps; 7, small pair of curved scissors; 8, Crile cannulæ; 9, needles threaded with fine strands of silk.

or by means of the direct suture method of Carrel. Crile's method is without doubt the more rapidly and easily performed of the two. It consists essentially of slipping the tube over the vein, turning the free end of the vein back over the outer surface of the tube, and then drawing the artery over this venous cuff. By this method the intimæ of the vessels are brought into apposition and there is no foreign substance in contact with the stream of blood, thus lessening the chance of thrombosis. Anastomosis by direct suture, while it brings about the same result, is difficult to perform except by one accustomed to blood-vessel suture. In addition, there is frequently a contraction of the vessels at the point of suture, and thrombosis is more likely to occur. The

operator intending to perform transfusion should, however, be familiar with both methods.

Instruments.—There will be required a scalpel, an ordinary pair of blunt-pointed scissors, a small pair of curved scissors, thumb forceps, very fine tissue forceps, two small Crile clamps, mosquito hemostats, and transfusion cannulæ. If direct suture is employed, instead of the

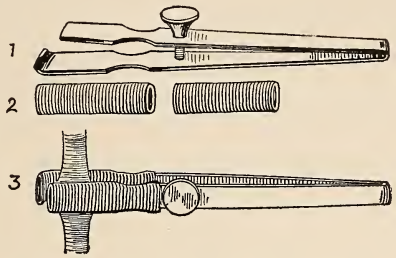


FIG. 81.—Enlarged view of Crile's clamps. (After Fowler.)
1, Clamp without rubbers; 2, rubber tubes to fit on jaws of clamps; 3, clamp applied to artery.

Crile tubes, there will be needed several No. 16 cambric needles and fine strands of silk (Fig. 80). The silk should be thoroughly impregnated with vaselin and should be threaded into the needles before the operation is begun.

The tube devised by Crile is of German silver and is provided with a small handle and with two grooves upon the outer surface of the cannula portion into which fit the ligatures holding the vein and artery

FIG. 82. FIG. 83.

FIG. 82.—Enlarged view of Crile's cannula.
FIG. 83.—Buerger's cannula.

in place (Fig. 82). At least four sizes of these tubes should be at hand, and the largest size that can be used without injury to the arterial coats by undue stretching should be employed.

To avoid the necessity of having several sizes of cannulæ and to furnish an instrument that can be more easily manipulated, Buerger has devised a cannula which is supplied with a long handle and is made

with a slit in the circumference of the tube so that it is possible to alter the diameter of the cannula to fit the individual vessels (Fig. 83).

Asepsis.—The strictest asepsis must be observed during the entire operation. The instruments are boiled, and the hands of the operator are prepared in the usual way. The forearms of the donor and the recipient should be thoroughly washed with green soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury, and then by sterile water.

Selection of the Donor.—If possible, a young vigorous adult should be selected to supply the blood. The subject should preferably be from among the relatives of the patient—a close blood relation, as a brother or sister, if possible. It is essential that the donor chosen be free from any constitutional or other disease, and a thorough physical examination, preceded by careful questioning, should be made to determine his fitness.

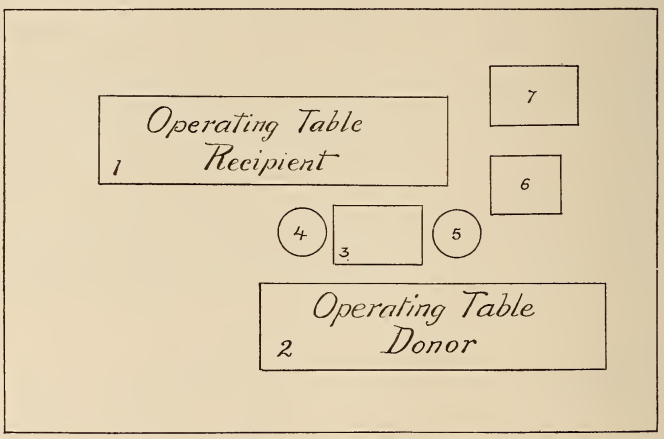


Fig. 84.—Arrangement of the operating-tables for a transfusion. (After Crile.) 1, Table for recipient; 2, table for donor; 3, table for arms of recipient and donor; 4 and 5, stools for operator and assistant; 6, instrument table; 7, table for dressings, etc.

Position of the Donor and Recipient.—The donor should lie upon an operating-table of such make that will permit his head to be quickly lowered if he becomes faint while the operation is in progress. The recipient is placed upon a second table, with the head turned in the opposite direction. Both tables should be provided with cushions or a layer of pillows, so that the patients will be comfortable during the operation. Between the two operating-tables is placed a small square table upon which the arms of the donor and recipient rest during the

operation. The operator is seated upon a stool in front of this table, and his assistant opposite.

Anesthesia.—The operation is performed under local anesthesia, employing a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain for the skin and a 0.1 per cent. solution for deeper infiltration.

Quantity Transfused.—It is impossible to estimate the exact amount of blood transfused and the guides should be the condition of the donor and the recipient; the amount should also vary according to the condition for which the transfusion is performed. Twenty to forty-five minutes' flow in a good anastomosis is usually sufficient. As soon as the donor shows signs of loss of blood—indicated by a gradual pallor about the nose and ears, deepening of the lines of expression, sighing or irregular respiration, etc.—the transfusion must be immediately stopped. If it is carried too far, the donor goes into a state of collapse, and a condition is produced in him similar to that for the relief of which the operation was performed. Furthermore, transfusion of excessive amounts of blood may cause serious damage to the viscera of the recipient, and even death. Acute dilatation of the heart, manifested by dyspnea, cyanosis, cough, and pain over the precordium is the most frequent sequel to overtransfusion. Should such a complication ensue, the transfusion must be immediately stopped, and appropriate treatment be instituted.

Rapidity of Flow.—The rate with which the blood flows from the donor to the recipient should be carefully gauged, for fear of overcharging the heart and producing an acute cardiac dilatation. This may be determined by noting the strength of the pulsation in the veins. If too strong, the flow may be regulated by partially compressing the lumen of the artery by means of the fingers.

Technic by Crile's Method.—The radial artery of the donor and any of the superficial veins about the elbow of the recipient are chosen for making the anastomosis—in a child the popliteal vein may be utilized. Both the donor and the recipient are given 1/4 gr. (0.0162 gm.) of morphin hypodermically half an hour before the operation unless it is contraindicated.

The area of incision is infiltrated with cocain, and about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) of the radial artery is exposed and dissected free. Any branches are avoided if possible; if they cannot be avoided, they may be tied off with fine silk and cut close to the trunk. A Crile clamp is gently applied as high as possible to the proximal end of the artery, or, in the absence of a special clamp, a piece of tape may be placed around the artery and clamped sufficiently tight to

compress the vessel and shut off the circulation. The distal end of the artery is then ligated and the vessel is cut. The adventitia is pulled over the end of the vessel and is snipped off as clean as possible. The field of operation is now covered with a compress well soaked with

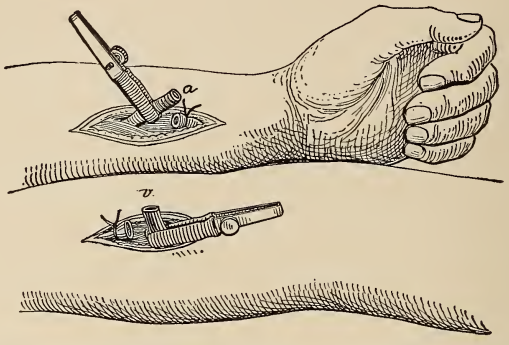


Fig. 85.—Transfusion by Crile's method. First step, exposure of the vein and artery with Crile's clamps applied.

hot saline solution. The vein of the recipient chosen is then exposed in the same manner, and about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) of it is freed from the surrounding tissues. The distal end of the vein is ligated, and to the proximal end is applied a Crile clamp (Fig. 85), or a narrow piece of tape

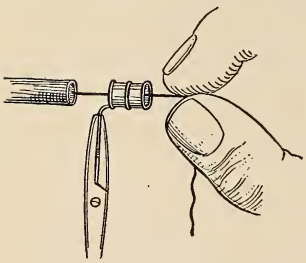


Fig. 86.

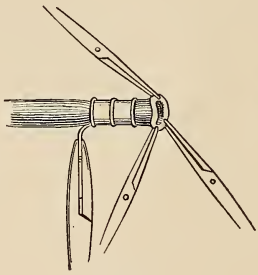


Fig. 87.

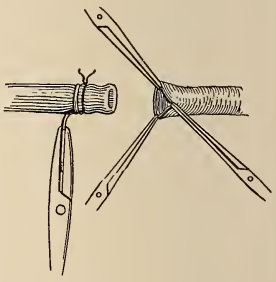


Fig. 88.

Fig. 86.—Transfusion by Crile's method. (After Crile). Second step, drawing the vein through the cannula.

Fig. 87.—Transfusion by Crile's method. (After Crile.) Third step, method of cuffing back the vein.

Fig. 88.—Transfusion by Crile's method. (After Crile.) Fourth step, showing the vein cuffed back over the cannula and the method of drawing the artery over the vein.

fastened as described above. The vessel is divided and the adventitia is snipped off after pulling it out over the end of the vessel. A Crile cannula of appropriate size, held in an artery clamp, is pushed over the vein. A suture inserted in the edge of the vein, as shown in Fig. 86,

aids in drawing the latter through the cannula. The projecting portion of the vein is seized by three mosquito clamps and is turned back as a cuff (Fig. 87), and is tied in the second groove of the cannula. The forearms of the donor and the recipient are then placed so that the hand of the donor is directed toward the elbow of the recipient. The cuffed portion of the vein is lubricated with sterile vaselin, three mosquito forceps are applied to the edges of the artery, and it is gradually drawn down over the cuffed vein (Fig. 88) and is tied in place by a silk ligature which fits into the first groove on the cannula. The clamp is removed from the vein first. The clamp upon the artery is then very gradually opened, allowing the blood to flow into the vein of the recipent (Fig. 89). At the completion of the operation the vessels are ligated, the tube is excised, and the skin incision is sutured and dressed with sterile gauze.

In performing the operation there are several precautions to be observed. The vessels to be anastomosed must be handled with the

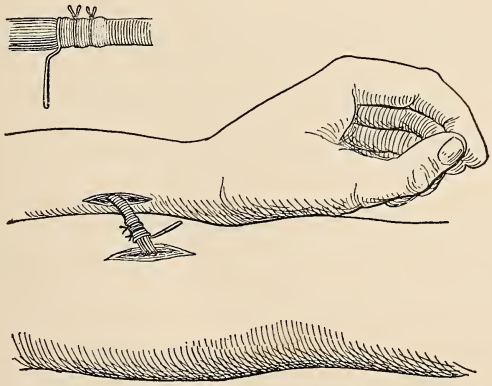


FIG. 89.—Transfusion by Crile's method. Fifth step, showing the anastomosis completed.

greatest care. They should never be bruised with artery clamps or picked up with toothed forceps. Some difficulty may be experienced from retraction of the vessels when they are cut. This may be overcome to a great extent by keeping them constantly moistened with hot saline solution. In the case of a contracted artery, Crile advises that it be dilated by gently inserting a fine pair of closed artery clamps covered with vaselin and using it as one would a glove stretcher. Care should be taken that the anastomosis be made without undue tension, and that the cannula be placed accurately in the long axis of the vein and artery, otherwise the flow will be more or less impeded.

Variations in Technic.—Brewer has simplified Crile's method of making an anastomosis by employing long glass tubes lined with paraffin (Fig. 90). These tubes are about 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) long, and are made small at the end to be inserted into the artery and large at the end over which the vein is drawn. Each end is slightly bulbous, and is provided with a sulcus into which the ligature holding the vessel in place falls.

The tubes are thoroughly sterilized and are then dipped in melted paraffin, shaken out, and allowed to cool. The vein and artery are exposed and isolated in the usual way and two Crile clamps are applied as shown in Fig. 85. The artery is drawn over one end of the tube and is secured by a ligature. A longitudinal or a transverse

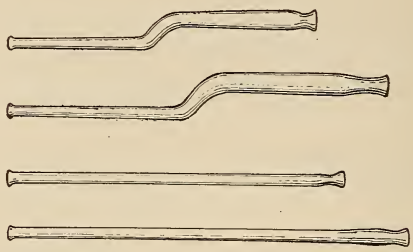


Fig. 90.—Brewer's glass tubes lined with paraffin for transfusion.

cut is made in the wall of the vein (see Fig. 104), and, after loosening the arterial clamp sufficiently to permit the tube to fill with blood, the distal end of the tube is quickly inserted into the vein in the manner shown in Fig. 106, and is secured in place by a ligature. The clamps are then removed and the blood is allowed to flow.

It is claimed that the length of these tubes and the ease with which they are inserted into the vessels render the operation considerably less difficult.

Hartwell (*Journal of the American Medical Association*, Jan. 23, 1909) has devised a method of transfusion without the use of a cannula by simply inserting the artery into the vein. He describes the method as follows: "The artery and vein are dissected out, temporarily clamped and divided in the usual manner, with the usual care in securing the small branches. The adventitia is removed from each, but a small coil of it is left curled up on the outside of the artery about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) from the cut proximal end. Three guiding sutures of fine silk are then passed by means of a fine needle—an ordinary intestinal needle and zero silk are sufficiently fine—at intervals of 120 degrees

in the circumference of the cut end of the vein. The end of the artery is greased with melted sterilized petrolatum. The mouth of the vein is drawn open with the sutures, and the artery is passed directly into it for a distance of an inch (2.5 cm.). One of the guiding sutures is then passed through the rolled up adventitia on the artery, to hold the two vessels in contact, and the greater or less amount of superfluous circumference of the vein is clamped or sutured so as simply to approximate the artery but not to constrict it. The obstructing clamps are removed, and the blood current is allowed to flow."

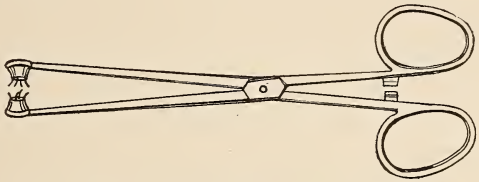


FIG. 91.—Levin's transfusion clamp.

Levin (*Annals of Surgery*, March, 1909) describes a clamp form of transfusion cannula. This instrument (Fig. 91) is made in the form of an artery clamp with a small cannula attached to the tip of each blade. Upon the free edge of each cannula are placed four small pin points, and upon the outer surface are four grooves into which the pins fit when the two cannulæ are in contact.

To perform an anastomosis with this instrument the two halves of the instrument are separated. The cut vein is passed through one

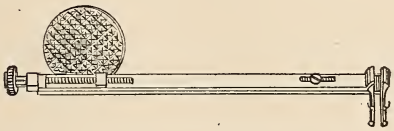


FIG. 92.—Elsberg's transfusion cannula.

cannula and its wall is hooked on the pins. The artery is treated in a similar manner, and then both halves of the instrument are united and clamped.

Elsberg (*Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 13, 1909) describes a very practical cannula that does away with the necessity for the Crile clamps. His method of performing the anastomosis differs from the Crile method in several points. "The cannula (Fig. 92) is built on the principle of a monkey wrench, and can be enlarged or narrowed to any size desired by means of a screw at its end.

The smallest lumen obtainable is about equal to that of the smallest Crile cannula, and the largest greater than the lumen of any radial artery. The instrument is cone-shaped at its tip, a short distance from which is a ridge with four small pin points which are directed backward. The lumen of the cannula at its base is larger than at its tip."

In using this instrument, after first exposing and separating the artery from the surrounding tissues in the usual manner, the cannula is widely opened and is placed around the artery before the latter is cut. The cannula is then screwed together, thereby shutting off the arterial flow. The distal end of the artery is next ligated at about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) from the end of the cannula, and three fine silk traction sutures or small tenacula are passed through the artery at equidistant points on its circumference a short distance from the ligature. The artery is then cut close to the ligature, and the end is cuffed back by drawing upon traction stitches or tenacula and is caught in the teeth upon the clamp. The vein of the recipient is then exposed and two ligatures are applied, the distal one being tied (see Fig. 103). The vein is opened by means of a small transverse slit in the same manner as for an intravenous infusion (see Fig. 104), and the cannula with the cuffed artery is inserted into the vein and tied securely in place by means of the loose ligature. The cannula is then screwed open and the blood is allowed to flow, the rapidity of flow being controlled by the extent to which the cannula is opened.

Technic by Carrel's Suture.—Under local anesthesia the radial artery of the donor and the median basilic vein of the recipient are dissected free for a distance of 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.), and any small branches are tied off with fine silk close to the main trunk. A small Crile clamp is applied to the proximal portion of the artery as near as possible to the upper limit of the incision, and the distal end of the vessel is tied off. The artery is then cut close to the distal ligature and the adventitia is drawn down over the end of the vessel and trimmed off. The field of operation is then covered by a pad moistened in saline solution, while the attention of the operator is directed to preparing the vein. The extreme distal end of the vein is tied off with a ligature, a Crile clamp is applied to the proximal portion, and the vessel is severed close to the distal ligature (see Fig. 85). The end of the vein is then trimmed of its adventitia, as was the artery. The arms of the donor and the recipient are placed near together upon a small table, so that the vessels may be brought together without tension, the hand of the donor pointing toward the elbow of the recipient. The ends of the two vessels are then sutured together as follows:

The needle, threaded with a fine strand of silk impregnated with vaselin, is passed through the wall of the artery from without in and through the wall of the vein (Fig. 93), and the two ends of the suture are tied and left long, to serve as a traction stitch. Two other sutures

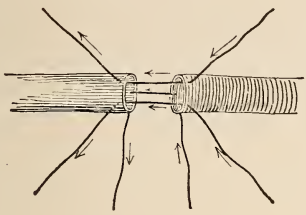


FIG. 93.

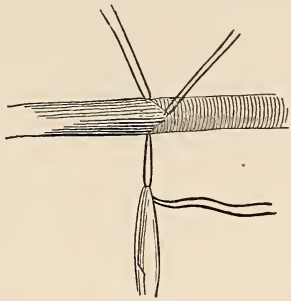


FIG. 94.

FIG. 93.—Transfusion by Carrel's suture. (After Carrel.) First step, showing the method of inserting the three traction sutures.

FIG. 94.—Transfusion by Carrel's suture. (After Carrel.) Second step, the three traction sutures in place.

are similarly placed at such points that the circumference of the vessels is divided into three equal parts (Fig. 94). Two of these traction sutures are made taut, and the portion of the vessels between them is readily sutured. A continuous stitch is employed for this, the stitches being

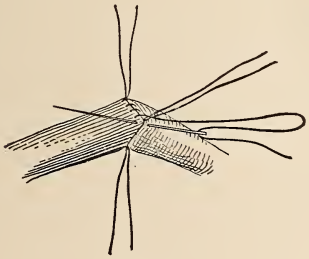


FIG. 95.

FIG. 96.

FIG. 95.—Transfusion by Carrel's suture. (After Carrel.) Third step, showing the method of suturing the artery and vein.

FIG. 96.—Transfusion by Carrel's suture. (After Carrel.) Fourth step, the anastomosis completed.

placed near the edges of the vessels and close together to prevent leakage (Fig. 95). Before performing this suturing a clamp should be attached to the third traction stitch and should be allowed to hang from below so as to open the lumen of the vessel and thus avoid including other por-

tions of the intima in the suture. As soon as one-third of the vessels is united, the next two traction stitches are made taut and another third is sutured, the clamp being also shifted to the under stay. The remaining third is united in precisely the same manner, thus completing the suturing around the entire circumference of the two vessels (Fig. 96). The clamp upon the vein is removed first, and then the arterial clamp is slowly unscrewed, allowing the blood to gradually flow from one vessel into the other. If the sutures are properly applied, there should be but little, if any, leakage at the line of union.

CHAPTER V.

INFUSIONS OF PHYSIOLOGICAL SALT SOLUTION.

The administration of physiological salt solution was originally introduced as a substitute for transfusion of blood in the treatment of hemorrhage on account of the numerous risks that attended the latter operation as formerly performed, and the difficulty of obtaining a suitable donor when most needed. The technic of transfusion has, however, been wonderfully perfected, and it can now be said to be an operation without danger if employed with proper precautions; but, notwithstanding the fact that it can never supplant transfusion in the point of effectiveness, as no media have been found as satisfactory as blood, the infusion of salt solution is, and will be, employed in preference to transfusion in the great majority of cases. This may be readily understood when we consider that the methods of administering salt solution can be carried out on short notice, that they require but little preparation, that they are marked by simplicity in technic, and that they are within the reach of all; on the other hand, transfusion becomes a formidable operation in comparison.

Salt solution may be introduced into the circulation through a vein (intravenous infusion), through an artery (intraarterial infusion), through the subcutaneous tissues (hypodermoclysis), and by way of the bowel (rectal infusion). Whichever route be chosen, the saline infusion is a most valuable and potent therapeutic procedure.

Indications.—The use of physiological salt solution is indicated in the following conditions:

(1) In collapse following severe hemorrhage to replace the circulating fluid, thus giving the heart a volume of fluid to contract upon and raising blood pressure. Salt solution, however, cannot replace the constituents of the blood, and in the severest grades of hemorrhage, when the number of oxygen-carrying red cells falls below a certain point, the injection of fluids into the circulation will not avail; only the transfusion of blood can avert a fatal issue in such cases.

(2) In the prophylaxis and treatment of mild surgical shock, for the purpose of restoring heat to the body and raising arterial tension. As shown by Crile, however, in severe shock, unless due to hemorrhage, the rise of blood pressure is so temporary that the first benefits derived

from the infusion are not maintained. In such cases, the combination with the salt solution of drugs which raise blood pressure, such as adrenalin chlorid, is followed by more marked and beneficial results. For a single infusion, 10 to 30♏ (0.6 to 1.9 c.c.) of the 1 to 1000 solution of adrenalin chlorid may be added to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of salt solution, or the adrenalin may be administered by thrusting a hypodermic needle into the rubber tubing near the cannula and injecting the drug as the salt solution flows into the vein.

(3) To increase the fluids in the tissues where there is deficient absorption of food, as in excessive vomiting, peritonitis, etc., or to replace the fluids lost through purging, as in dysentery and cholera. The administration of salt solution may also be used to advantage before undertaking operations upon poorly nourished individuals.

(4) For its stimulating effects and the production of a rapid elimination of impurities from the body by causing diuresis, saline infusion is indicated in suppression of urine, uremia, diabetic coma, eclampsia, septicemia, various forms of toxemia, and in poisoning from carbonic acid gas, illuminating gas, etc.

(5) For the purpose of relieving postoperative thirst.

The administration of saline solution is contraindicated in advanced dropsy, pulmonary edema, or marked cardiac insufficiency.

Preparation of the Solution.—To be exact, normal physiological salt solution that is isotonic with the blood, consists of nine parts sodium chlorid to one-thousand parts of water. A variation in the strength of the solution between 0.6 per cent. and 0.9 per cent. is permissible, however, and in practice the solution is generally made up in the strength of 0.7 per cent.—roughly, 1 dram (3.9 gm.) of chemically pure sodium chlorid to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of distilled water. It is of the utmost importance that the solution be accurately made, and it should not vary much from this strength of seven parts per thousand, as solutions not isotonic with the blood produce certain untoward changes in the corpuscles. It is the opinion of Mummery that symptoms, such as chills and sweating, which are sometimes seen after intravenous infusions, are due to the incorrect chemical composition of the fluid employed. Carelessness in this respect, as well as disregard of the proper temperature of the solution, are without doubt also responsible for many of the cases of reported sloughing of the tissues after subcutaneous infusion.

A convenient method of keeping the salt solution ready for use is to have a sterilized and very concentrated solution put up in hermetically sealed tubes, in such a strength that the contents of one tube emptied

into a quart (946 c.c.) of sterile water gives a normal salt solution (Fig. 97). In hospital practice it is customary to keep the solution in stock bottles ready for use. The solution is made up in the proper strength from sterile salt dissolved in sterile water, and is then prepared as follows.[1] "Filter into flasks (sterilized by washing with bichlorid solution, then rinsing with sterile water) stoppered with nonabsorbent cotton, sterilize for one hour for three successive days at a temperature of 220° F., and cover the cotton stoppers with a small square of rubber tissue held in place by a rubber band. When needed, place the flask in a deep basin filled with hot water until raised to the proper temperature." A more convenient method of bringing the solution to the

FIG. 97.—A tube of concentrated sterile salt solution.

required temperature when needed for use is to have very hot and cold salt solutions at hand in separate flasks. The solution may be quickly heated by placing the flasks, surrounded by water to their necks, in a sterilizer or a deep basin, and bringing the water to the boiling-point. Some of the cold solution is poured into the reservoir first, and sufficient of the hot solution is then added to bring the contents of the reservoir to the proper temperature.

Other Solutions Employed.—Some operators prefer to employ artificial sera prepared according to certain formulæ, the object being to obtain a solution as nearly identical to the blood serum as possible. Some of those most frequently used are as follows:

Hare's formula:			(Approximately.)
Calcium chlorid,	0.25	gm.	gr. iv.
Potassium chlorid,	.10	gm.	gr. 1 1/2
Sodium chlorid,	9	gm.	dr. 2 1/4
Distilled water,	1000	c.c.	qt. i.
Ringer's formula:			
Potassium chlorid,	0.2	gm.	gr. iii.
Sodium bicarbonate,	0.2	gm.	gr. iii.
Sodium chlorid,	9	gm.	dr. 2 1/4
Distilled water,	1000	c.c.	qt. i.

[1] Fowler. "The Operating-room and the Patient."

Locke's formula:

Calcium chlorid,	0.2	gm.	gr. iii.
Potassium chlorid,	0.1	gm.	gr. 1 1/2
Sodium bicarbonate,	0.1	gm.	gr. 1 1/2
Glucose,	1	gm.	gr. xv
Sodium chlorid,	9	gm.	dr. 2 1/4
Distilled water,	1000	c.c.	qt. i.

Szumann's formula:

Sodium chlorid,	6	gm.	dr. 1 1/2
Sodium carbonate,	1	gm.	gr. xv.
Distilled water,	1000	c.c.	qt. i

Hayem's formula:

Sodium chlorid,	5	gm.	dr. 1 1/4
Sodium sulphate,	1	gm.	gr. xv.
Distilled water,	1000	c.c.	qt. i.

INTRAVENOUS INFUSION.

The introduction of salt solution directly into a vein assures us of its immediate entrance into the circulation and the certainty of its

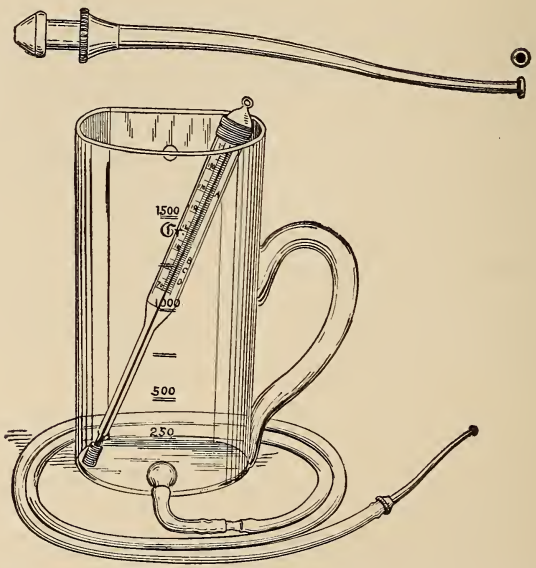


FIG. 98.—Apparatus for giving an intravenous infusion. (Ashton.)

absorption. The intravenous method is thus indicated in any of the conditions previously mentioned where there is necessity for great haste and a prompt response to the treatment. The advantages of this method of infusion are pointed out by Matas as being almost unrestricted in possibilities in regard to quantity, comparatively much less painful

than the subcutaneous method, and requiring the simplest and most readily improvised apparatus. In addition, if properly given, there is absolute freedom from danger.

Apparatus.—There should be provided a thermometer, a graduated glass irrigating jar, about 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing, 1/4 inch (6 mm.) in diameter, and a blunt-pointed metal infusion cannula (Fig. 98). In addition, a constrictor for the arm, a gauze compress, and a bandage will be required.

In an emergency, a fountain syringe or a large funnel will answer for the reservoir, and the glass tube of a medicine dropper will take the place of a cannula.

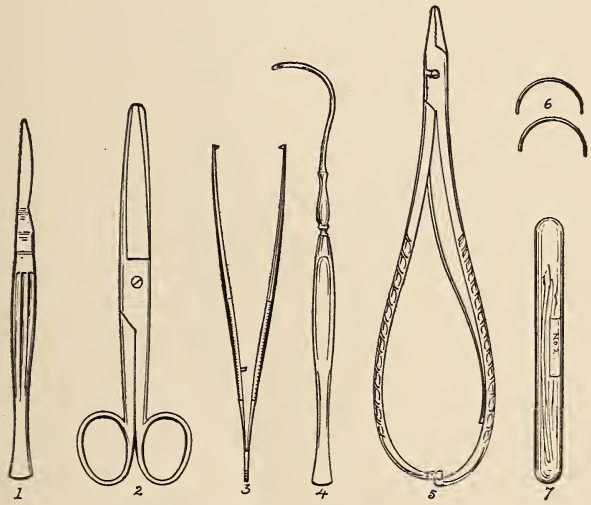


FIG. 99.—Instruments for intravenous infusion.

1, Scalpel; 2, blunt-pointed scissors; 3, thumb forceps; 4, aneurysm needle; 5, needle holder; 6, curved needles; 7, No. 2 plain catgut.

Instruments.—The operator will require a scalpel, a pair of blunt-pointed scissors, mouse-toothed thumb forceps, an aneurysm needle, a needle holder, two curved-needles with a cutting edge, and No. 2 plain catgut (Fig. 99).

Asepsis.—Strict asepsis should be observed. The instruments and apparatus should be boiled, the thermometer should be immersed in a 1 to 500 solution of bichlorid of mercury for ten minutes, and then rinsed in sterile water, and the operator's hands and patient's skin should be as carefully scrubbed as for any operation.

Temperature of Solution.—Most operators advise that the solution

be administered at a temperature of a few degrees above that of normal blood, *i.e.*, at about 105° F. The stimulating effect of heat upon the circulation, however, should not be lost sight of, and, when such an action is desired, the solution may be used at a temperature of 115° to 118° F. without harmful effects. It should be borne in mind that there will be some loss of heat while the solution is flowing from the reservoir. For this reason, the fluid in the reservoir should be kept at a temperature of from 2° to 3° higher than the temperature at which it is wished to give the infusion.

It is of the greatest importance that the solution be introduced into the body at a uniform temperature throughout the entire operation. To insure this, a thermometer is kept in the solution continuously. By watching the thermometer and adding hot solution from time to time, as that in the reservoir cools, a uniform temperature may be maintained.

Rapidity of Flow.—The speed of the flow can be regulated by raising or lowering the reservoir, or compressing the rubber tube. The speed of flow should be at about the rate of one pint (473.11 c.c.) in five to ten minutes. It should be remembered that *the weaker the action of the heart the slower must the fluid be introduced.* Acute dilatation of the heart may be produced by disregard of this caution. Furthermore, if the solution enters the circulation too rapidly, the fluid that is driven from the heart to the lungs may consist of pure salt solution, and signs of imperfect oxygenation of the blood with embarrassed respiration and restlessness will follow. If such symptoms appear, the infusion must be discontinued until the dangerous signs have passed.

Quantity Given.—It has been shown that only a certain amount of the solution will be retained in the circulation; after a time it escapes into the tissues and produces edema. Hence there is no object in infusing enormous quantities. The average amount administered at a time varies from one pint (473.11 c.c.) to three pints (1419 c.c.), depending on the case, but larger quantities may be required in cases of severe hemorrhage, or after venesection. The operator will be guided as to the requisite quantity chiefly by the return of the pulse, the increase in its volume, and by the improvement in the color of the patient's skin. In severe cases it may be advisable to repeat the infusion two or three times within twenty-four hours rather than to infuse an enormous quantity at one time.

Site of Operation.—One of the most prominent veins at the bend of the elbow is usually chosen (Fig. 100), preferably the median basilic

which runs across the bend of the elbow from without inward.[1] At times a vein exposed in the course of an operation may be conveniently utilized.

Preparation of the Patient.—All clothing should be removed from the area selected for the infusion, and that about the axilla loosened if the arm is chosen for the infusion. The bend of the elbow is shaved, if necessary, and is scrubbed with warm water and soap, then washed

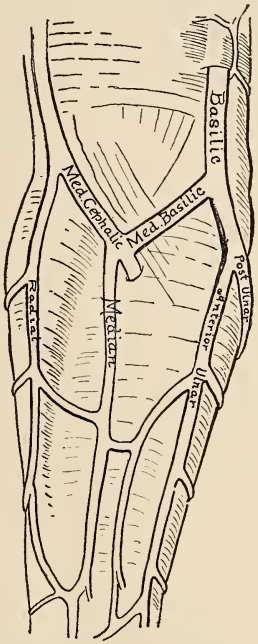


FIG. 100.—The superficial veins of the forearm. (Ashton.)

with bichlorid of mercury (1 to 2000), and finally is rinsed with sterile water. A sterile bandage is tightly wrapped above the elbow to compress the veins and make them more prominent (Fig. 101). If the circulation is very feeble, even this expedient may fail to make the veins stand out conspicuously.

Anesthesia.—Anesthesia of the skin is obtained by infiltration at the site of incision with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain freshly prepared, or by freezing with ethyl chlorid or a piece of ice dipped in salt.

[1] Dawbarn advises that the infusion be performed through the internal saphenous vein at a point anywhere above the ankle, claiming (1) that it is as large or larger than the veins at the bend of the elbow; (2) that there are no important structures near by to be injured by a careless operator; (3) that the scar is unobjectionable; and (4) that the assistants performing the operation will usually interfere less with the operating surgeon than if the arm is used.

Technic.—With the forearm supinated, a transverse incision is made over the median basilic vein (Fig. 102). The vein is dissected from its

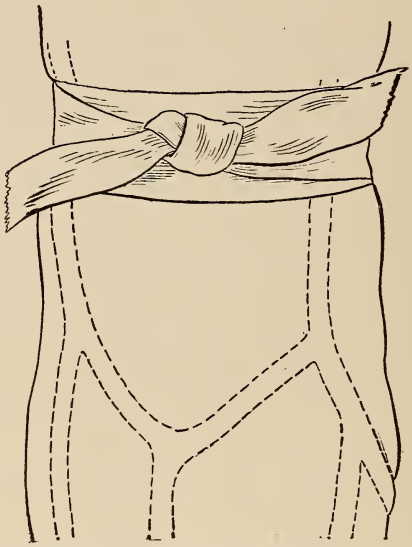


FIG. 101.—Showing the application of the bandage to the arm to constrict the veins. (Ashton.)

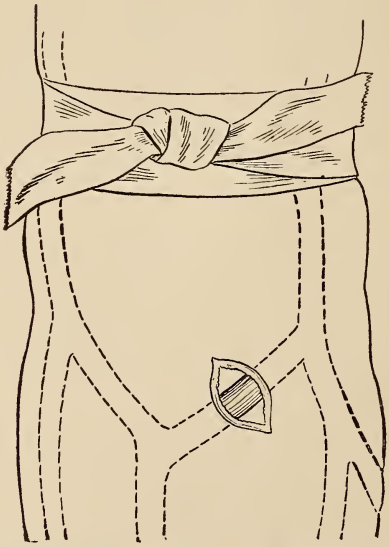


FIG. 102.—Intravenous saline infusion. (Ashton.) First step, showing the vein exposed by a small incision.

bed for a distance of 1 to 1 1/2 inches (2.5 to 4 cm.), and is raised from the wound while two catgut ligatures are passed beneath it by means

of an aneurysm needle, or, in its absence, by a pair of thumb forceps. The distal portion of the vein is tied off as low as possible with one ligature, and the second ligature is placed high up around the portion of the vein nearest the heart, ready to be tied (Fig. 103). A portion of

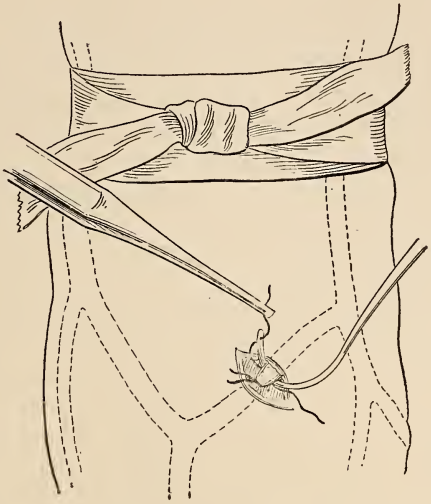


FIG. 103.—Intravenous saline infusion. Second step, showing the distal end of the vein tied and a second ligature being passed under the proximal end of the vein.

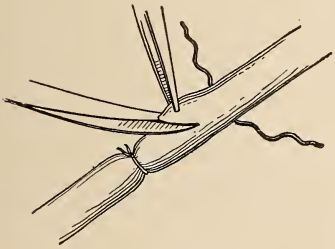


FIG. 104.

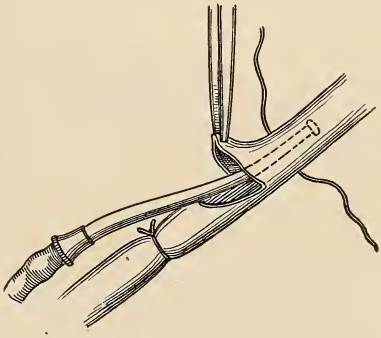


FIG. 105.

FIG. 104.—Intravenous saline infusion. Third step, showing the method of incising the vein.

FIG. 105.—Intravenous saline infusion. (Ashton.) Fourth step, showing the cannula being inserted into the vein.

the exposed vein is now grasped in a mouse-toothed forceps at a short distance from the distal ligature, and, while the vein is put upon the stretch, a cut directed obliquely upward is made with scissors through half the vein, exposing its lumen (Fig. 104). The solution is first allowed

to flow through the cannula to expel any air or fluid that may have become cold by standing, and the cannula, with the solution still flowing, is then inserted well into the cut vein (Fig. 105) and is secured in place by tying the second ligature. It is well to tie this ligature in a bow knot so that it may be easily loosened when the cannula is to be withdrawn at the end of the operation (Fig. 106). *The bandage is now removed from above the elbow*, and the saline solution is allowed to enter the circulation, the reservoir being raised 2 to 6 feet (60 to 180 cm.) above the patient. During the infusion the temperature of the solution must be kept uniform, the thermometer in the reservoir being constantly watched, and *care must be taken to replenish the fluid in the reservoir before it has all escaped*, otherwise air will enter the vein when a fresh supply is added.

When sufficient solution has been introduced, the ligature about the cannula is loosened, and the latter is withdrawn. With this same

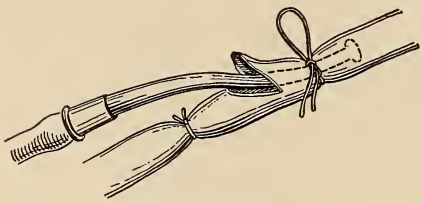


Fig. 106.

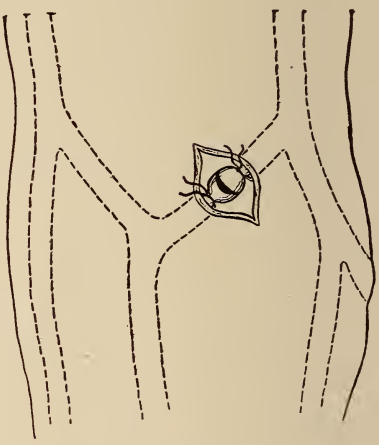


Fig. 107.

Fig. 106.—Intravenous saline infusion. Fifth step, showing the cannula tied in place.

Fig. 107.—Intravenous saline infusion. (Ashton). Sixth step, showing the infusion cannula removed and the proximal end of the vein ligated.

ligature the proximal end of the vein may be then tied off (Fig. 107). The edges of the skin wound are united with several catgut sutures, and a sterile gauze dressing, held in place by a few turns of a bandage, is applied.

Variation in Technic.—Some operators perform intravenous infusion without making a preliminary incision to expose the vessel. The same apparatus is employed as for an ordinary intravenous infusion, except that a hypodermic or a small aspirating needle is substi-

tuted for the blunt cannula. The needle, with the solution flowing, is plunged through the skin directly into the wall of the vein.

The difficulty in placing the needle accurately in the vein, especially if the subject is very fat, places a limitation upon the field of usefulness of this method.

INTRAARTERIAL INFUSION.

Saline solution may be injected into the artery instead of intravenously, if desired. The solution may be injected either into the distal end of the vessel, or into the proximal end against the blood current. The advantages claimed by its advocates for this method of infusion over the venous route is that the fluid, by being first driven to the capillaries, is sent to the heart more gradually and is more evenly mixed with the circulating blood than when the entire volume of solution enters a vein, and, as a result, there is less disturbance produced in the circulation. Infusion against the blood current has, in addition, it is claimed, a stimulating effect upon the heart.

These alleged advantages of arterial infusion, however, seem to be overbalanced by the accidents that may follow employment of this method, there having been reported a number of cases in which sloughing about the area of infusion resulted, in some even necessitating amputation of the hand, so that for ordinary purposes saline solution introduced through a vein should be the method of choice.

Crile and Dolley (*Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Dec., 1906), however, have shown that the infusion of normal salt solution and adrenalin into an artery against the blood current in suspended animation from the effects of anesthesia or other causes is the most effective way of raising the blood pressure and stimulating the heart. They point out that adrenalin administered by the venous system comes in contact with vessels having the least power of influencing blood pressure, and that before a material rise can be effected by the action of the adrenalin upon the arteries it is necessary for the solution to pass through the right heart, the lungs, and then back to the left heart before it reaches the aorta and coronary arteries, This often causes an accumulation of solution and blood in the dilated chambers of the heart, defeating resuscitation. On the other hand, by the arterial route, the blood and solution are driven back toward the heart directly affecting the coronary arteries, thus restoring blood pressure and stimulating the heart to beat again. They have shown that it is possible by this method to resuscitate animals that were apparently dead.

Apparatus.—The same apparatus described on page 131 for intravenous infusion, or an infusion cannula attached to a large glass funnel by a piece of rubber tubing, may be employed. In addition, a hypodermic syringe will be required.

Site of Infusion.—The carotid artery or one of its large branches is chosen for the injection as being the most direct route to the coronary arteries.

Technic.—Crile (*Am. Jour. of Med. Sciences*, April, 1909) gives the following technic for employing arterial infusion in humans for purposes of resuscitation. "The patient, in the prone position, is subjected at once to rapid rhythmic pressure upon the chest, with one

FIG. 108.—Showing the method of infusing salt and adrenalin solution into the carotid artery. (After Da Costa.)

hand on each side of the sternum. This pressure produces artificial respiration and a moderate artificial circulation. A cannula is inserted toward the heart into an artery. Normal saline, Ringer's or Locke's solution, or, in their absence, sterile water, or, in extremity, even tap water is infused by means of a funnel and rubber tubing. But as soon as the flow has begun the rubber tubing near the cannula is pierced with a hypodermic syringe loaded with 1 to 1000 adrenalin chlorid and 15 to 30 ♏ (0.92 to 1.90 c.c.) are at once injected. Repeat the injection in a minute, if needed. Synchronously with the injection of the adrenalin, the rhythmic pressure on the thorax is brought to a maximum. The resulting artificial circulation distributes the adrenalin that spreads

its stimulating contact with the arteries, bringing a wave of powerful contraction and producing a rising arterial, hence coronary, pressure. When the coronary pressure rises to, say, 40 mm. or more, the heart is liable to spring into action. The first result of such action is to spread still further the blood-pressure-raising adrenalin, causing a further and vigorous rise in blood pressure, possibly even doubling the normal." . . . "Just as soon as the heart-beat is established, the cannula should be withdrawn, first, because it is no longer needed, and, second, the rising blood pressure will drive a current of blood into the tube and funnel."

Dawbarn's Emergency Method of Intraarterial Infusion.—This consists in injecting saline solution into the circulation through a

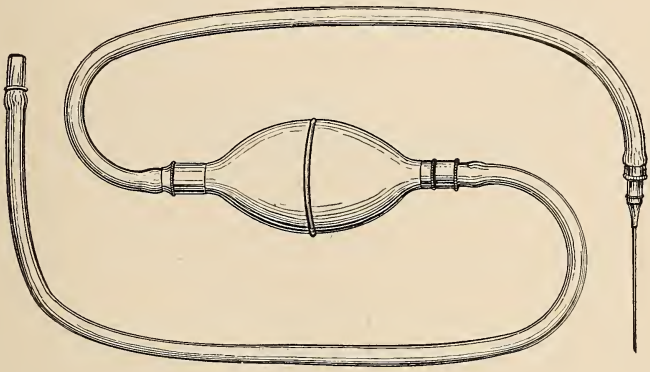


Fig. 109.—Apparatus for infusing salt solution into an artery in Dawbarn's emergency method.

hypodermic, or a long fine aspirating needle, inserted into the common femoral artery. Dawbarn recommends it as an emergency method in the absence of cannula and instruments necessary for intravenous infusion, or where the superficial veins are small and very difficult to locate.

Apparatus.—A hypodermic needle, or a long fine aspirating needle, and an ordinary Davidson syringe (Fig. 109) are all that are required.

Technic.—The femoral artery is first carefully defined just below Poupart's ligament. The aspirating needle is then forced by a slow rotary movement directly into the artery, entering it at right angles. As soon as the needle enters the vessel, bright red blood will fill its lumen. The rubber tubing of the syringe, which has been previously filled with saline fluid, is then slipped over the base of the needle and is firmly secured in place by tying. The fluid is then steadily pumped

from a basin directly into the arterial circulation (Fig. 110). According to Dawbarn, it requires about half an hour to inject a pint of solution by this method. If a fountain syringe is used instead of a Davidson syringe, it must be held at least 6 feet (180 cm.) above the patient to secure the necessary pressure, otherwise the blood will be forced back up the tube.

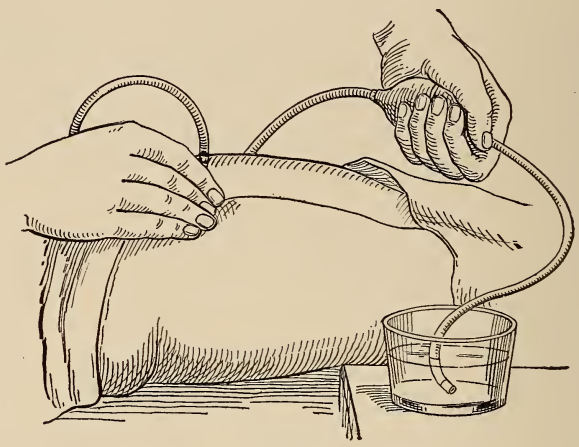


FIG. 110.—Showing the method of infusing salt solution into the femoral artery.

HYPODERMOCLYSIS.

The subcutaneous method of infusion does not permit as rapid an introduction of large quantities of solution as the intravenous, on account of the slowness with which the solution is absorbed. It is indicated in the same conditions as venous infusions, when urgency is not of prime importance. It is also frequently used as an adjunct to intravenous infusion. Hypodermoclysis is contraindicated where the tissues are edematous from dropsy, or where the circulation is so feeble that absorption of the solution is very slow or impossible.

Apparatus.—There will be required a thermometer, a graduated glass, irrigating jar, 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing, 1/4 inch (6 mm.) in diameter, and an aspirating needle of fair size (Fig. 111). When it is desired to introduce the fluid into both breasts at once, two needles fastened to the rubber tubing by means of a Y-shaped glass connection, as shown in Fig. 112, may be employed. In an emergency, a glass funnel or a fountain syringe, to which is attached an ordinary hypodermic needle by several feet of rubber tubing, may be utilized.

Asepsis.—The necessary apparatus should be boiled, the seat of injection thoroughly scrubbed, and the operator's hands carefully

cleansed. The thermometer is sterilized by immersion in a 1 to 500 bichlorid solution for ten minutes, followed by rinsing in sterile water

Temperature of the Solution.—The solution should enter the body at about 110° F. When using a large aspirating needle the fluid in the reservoir should be kept at a constant temperature of about 3 degrees

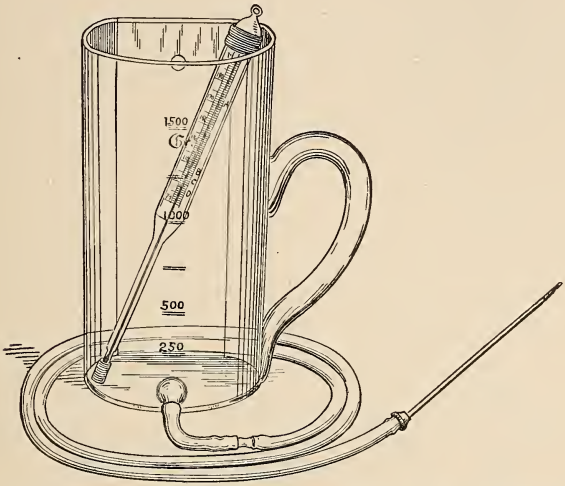


FIG. 111.—Apparatus for giving hypodermoclysis. (Ashton.)

higher. If a hypodermic needle be employed, about 5 degrees should be allowed for cooling.

Rapidity of Flow.—As the fluid is taken up with but comparative slowness from the subcutaneous tissues, the injection is given less rapidly than by the intravenous method. With a fair-sized needle about a

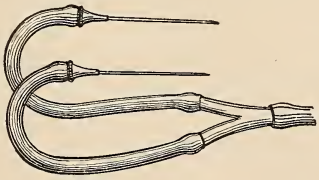


FIG. 112.—Showing two needles arranged for hypodermoclysis.

pint (473.11 c.c.) of fluid may be injected in from twenty to thirty minutes, the reservoir being held from 3 to 4 feet (90 to 120 cm.) above the patient. When a hypodermic needle is employed, the needle being so small in caliber, it will be necessary to raise the reservoir 5 or 6 feet (150 to 180 cm.) to get sufficient force.

Quantity Given.—Injections of small quantities of solution, repeated several times, give better results than a single large injection. As a rule, from 8 to 16 ounces (236 to 473.11 c.c.) of solution are introduced at a single injection, and repeated in a few hours, if necessary. According to Hildebrand, it is not safe to introduce a larger quantity of solution in fifteen minutes than 1 dram (3.75 c.c.) to each pound (453 gm.) of body weight. If this ratio is exceeded, the fluid accumulates and the tissues become water-logged, as the kidneys do not secrete rapidly enough to carry it off. Furthermore, very large quantities of solution should not be injected into one area, as it may produce undue distention of the tissues and consequent sloughing from the prolonged anemia.

Sites of Injection.—The area chosen for the injection should be in a region free from large blood-vessels and nerves and where there is an abundance of loose connective tissue. The usual sites are: (1) under

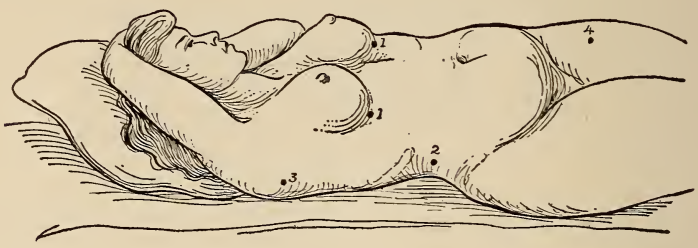


Fig. 113.—Sites for hypodermoclysis.

the mammary glands; (2) in the subcutaneous tissue between the crest of the ilium and the last rib; (3) in the subcutaneous tissue in the axillary space; (4) in the subcutaneous tissue on the inner surfaces of the thighs (Fig. 113).

Anesthesia.—The point of skin puncture may be anesthetized by the injection of a drop or two of a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain, or by freezing with ethyl chlorid or salt and ice.

Technic.—The reservoir is raised from 3 to 4 feet (90 to 120 cm.) above the patient, and some of the fluid is allowed to escape from the needle, to expel any air or cold solution. With the solution still flowing, the operator, using steady pressure, inserts the needle obliquely well into the subcutaneous tissue. As the solution enters, a swelling appears in the subcutaneous tissues which, however, slowly subsides as the fluid is absorbed (Fig. 114). If, as soon as the tissues in one area become distended, the needle be partly withdrawn and its direction be

changed slightly, a large amount of solution may be infiltrated over a wide area without producing too great tension at any one spot. The absorption of the solution may be hastened by gentle massage over the infiltrated area. During the operation, the temperature of

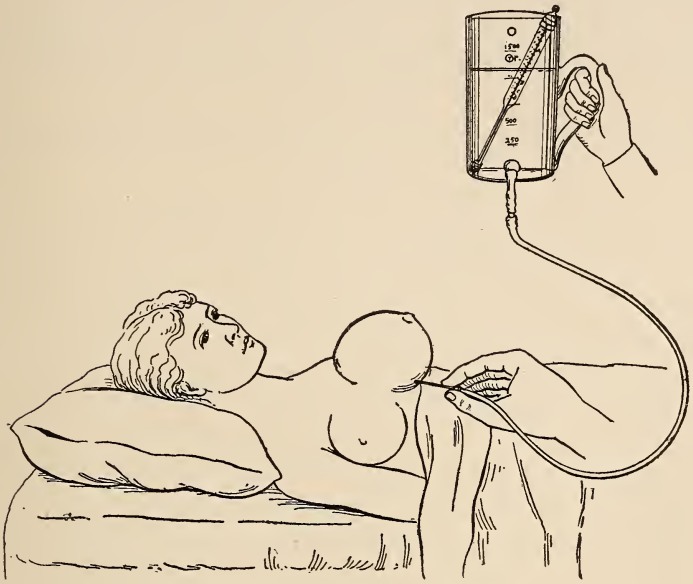


FIG. 114.—Giving hypodermoclysis under the left breast. (Ashton.)

the solution is to be kept uniform, and sufficient solution must be in the reservoir at all times to prevent air from entering the tube.

When the desired quantity of solution has been introduced, the needle is withdrawn and the finger is placed over the puncture to prevent the escape of fluid. The puncture is then sealed with sterile cotton and collodion.

RECTAL INFUSION. (See page 508.)

CHAPTER VI.

HYPODERMIC AND INTRAMUSCULAR INJECTIONS, ADMINISTRATION OF DIPHTHERIA ANTITOXIN, VACCINATION, ACUPUNCTURE, VENESECTION, SCARIFICATION, SUBCUTANEOUS DRAINAGE FOR EDEMA, CUPPING, AND LEECHING.

THE HYPODERMIC AND INTRAMUSCULAR INJECTION OF DRUGS.

Drugs may be administered by injection into the subcutaneous or muscular tissues when a rapid effect is desired, or when for any reason medication by the mouth is undesirable or is contraindicated. The injection of soluble, nonirritating substances is made into the subcutaneous tissues, from which the absorption is very rapid; but when the solution is insoluble or irritating, so that its presence in sensitive tissues would produce pain, it had best be given intramuscularly.

The advantages of hypodermic medication, besides the promptness of the effects obtained, consist in affording a method whereby it is possible to administer remedies in the presence of nausea and vomiting, or inability or unwillingness on the part of the patient to swallow; furthermore, the absorption of the drug is not dependent upon the functional activity of the gastrointestinal tract.

The Hypodermic Syringe.—The ordinary hypodermic syringe consists of a glass barrel protected by a metal case and furnished with

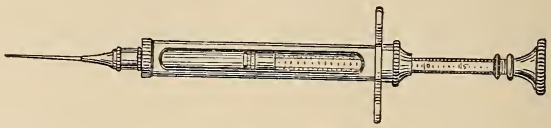


Fig. 115.—Ordinary glass and metal hypodermic syringe.

a leather-covered piston (Fig. 115). Such syringes, however, are difficult to keep clean and, if they are frequently boiled, the leather packing soon dries out and becomes insufficient unless carefully attended to. Syringes of solid metal (Fig. 116) or those consisting of a glass barrel and solid glass piston, as the Luer (Fig. 117), or with an asbestos-covered piston, as the "Sub-Q," will be found preferable, and may be easily cleaned and repeatedly boiled without harm. A syringe with a capacity of 30♏ (1.9 c.c.) is amply large for ordinary use.

The needles should be as fine as possible (28 to 27 gauge) and very sharp, and for injection beneath the skin they should be about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) in length. For the administration of liquids of a heavy consistency a needle of somewhat larger caliber will be required. For intramuscular injections, the needle should be 1 1/2 to 2 inches (4 to 5 cm.) long, and, if one of the insoluble preparations of mercury is employed, the caliber of the needle should be correspondingly large. To prevent the needles rusting and the lumen becoming plugged, they should be first well cleaned out with water after using, followed by

Fig. 116.—All metal hypodermic syringe.

alcohol and ether to remove any remaining fluid from the interior that might cause rusting, and, finally, they should be put away with a fine wire inserted in the lumen.

Preparation of the Solution.—The drugs most frequently used for hypodermic medication are morphin, atropin, strychnin, hyoscin, pilocarpin, caffein, cocain, apomorphin, quinin, mercury, digitalis, ergotin, nitroglycerin, adrenalin, alcohol, ether, etc. As the majority of these are either very powerful or poisonous, the dose should be accurately measured in every case.

The solution employed for the injection should always be sterile

Fig. 117.—Luer's hypodermic syringe.

and preferably freshly prepared. The strength of the solution is also important, for, if too concentrated, it may prove irritating, while, if greatly diluted, the bulk of solution necessary for the injection becomes objectionable. Most of the drugs for hypodermic use may be obtained in the form of soluble tablets which are dissolved in 5 to 10♏ (0.30 to 0.60 c.c.) of boiled water when required for use. Sterile solutions of the drugs, however, may be obtained in hermetically sealed glass ampullæ, each containing sufficient for one dose. The solution must be as nearly neutral as possible; irritating solutions or strongly alcoholic

preparations should be avoided on account of the danger of subsequent sloughing at the seat of injection. When whisky or brandy is employed, it is, therefore, well to dilute them with an equal amount of water before using. Insoluble preparations, as the salicylate of mercury, for example, are best administered in some sterile oil as albolene or benzoinol.

Sites for Injection.—For ordinary injections the least sensitive portions of the body provided with plenty of cellular tissue are selected,

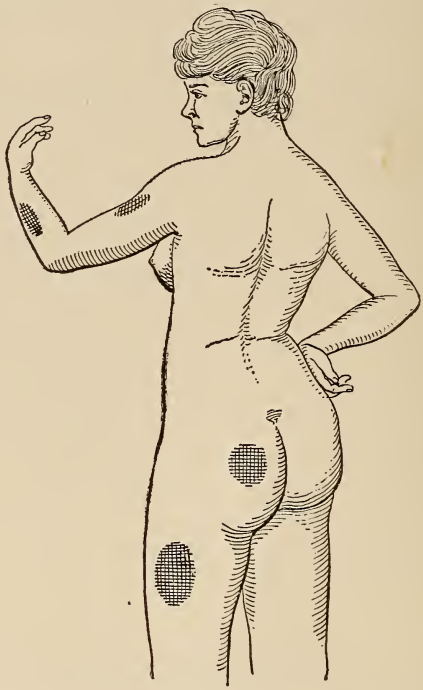


FIG. 118.—Sites for hypodermic injections.

the spot chosen, of course, being distant from the immediate neighborhood of large blood-vessels or nerves, bony prominences, or inflamed areas. The common sites are the outer surfaces of the arm, forearm, thighs, or the buttocks.

For deep intramuscular injections of drugs not rapidly absorbed the gluteal region is usually chosen (Fig. 118).

Asepsis.—The strictest regard as to cleanliness should always be observed. The needle and syringe should be boiled or at least immersed in some antiseptic solution before use, and the skin at the site of the injection should be washed with soap and water or rubbed clean with a piece of cotton or gauze saturated with alcohol.

Technic.—The required amount of solution is drawn into the barrel of the syringe with the needle in place and any air is expelled by elevating the needle end and depressing the piston. The skin over the site of the proposed injection is then pinched up between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, while with the right hand the needle is quickly thrust at an angle of 45 degrees into the subcutaneous tissues at the

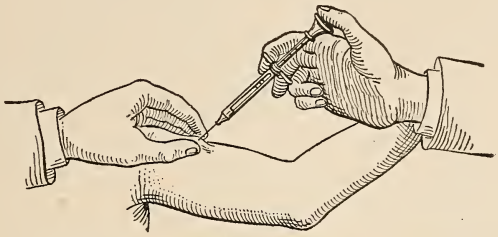


FIG. 119.—Showing the method of giving a hypodermic injection.

base of this fold (Fig. 119). If the needle is sharp and it be quickly plunged through the skin, but little, if any, pain will be experienced. The solution should be injected slowly to avoid too sudden distention of the tissues. When the required amount has been introduced, the needle is quickly withdrawn, and the finger is placed over the site of puncture, and gentle massage is practised for a moment or two to diffuse the solution.

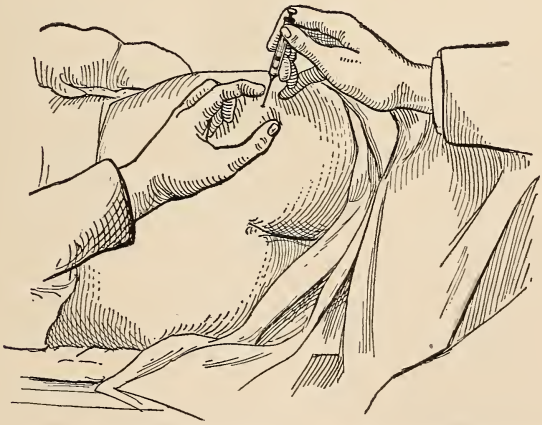


FIG. 120.—Deep intramuscular injection. First step, inserting the needle.

In giving a deep intramuscular injection, the skin over the chosen site is held tense by the fingers of the left hand, and the needle is steadily forced through the skin and subcutaneous tissues directly into the glutei muscles up to its hilt (Fig. 120). As soon as the needle

is in place, it is advisable to remove the syringe and observe whether there is any flow of blood from the needle (Fig. 121); if so, a new puncture

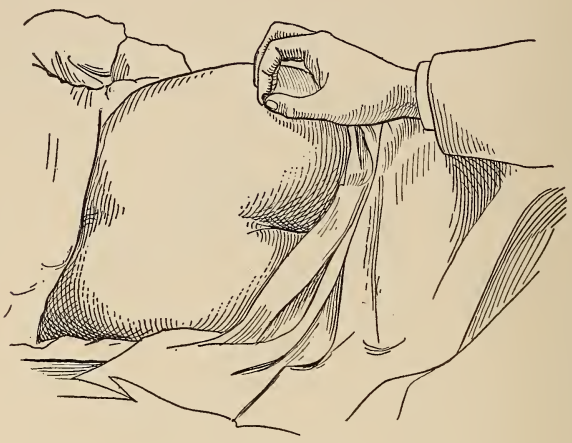


FIG. 121.—Deep intramuscular injection. Second step, showing the syringe removed and inspection of the needle for the flow of blood.

should be made. Observance of this precaution will obviate injecting the solution into the blood current should the needle point penetrate some vein. The solution is then injected slowly (Fig. 122), and at the

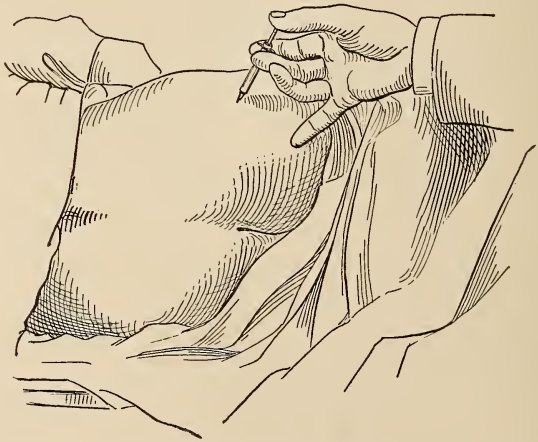


FIG. 122.—Deep intramuscular injection. Third step, injecting the solution.

completion of the operation the site of puncture is sealed with collodion or by means of a small piece of adhesive plaster.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF DIPHTHERIA ANTITOXIN.

Antitoxin is now almost universally used in the treatment of diphtheria, and its administration is a procedure with which all physicians should be familiar. It has enormously reduced the mortality from this disease, and, if the serum is of reliable quality, its use is without danger. The diphtheria bacilli are not killed by the antitoxin, but the toxins are neutralized and a condition is produced in the blood which inhibits the growth of the bacilli so that they gradually disappear.

The Serum.—As the serum is liable to be contaminated it should always be obtained from an unquestionable source. Antitoxin of the greatest concentration, that is, containing as little serum and as many units[1] of antitoxin as is possible, should be used in preference, as smaller amounts at a dose will be required and joint pains, skin eruptions, etc.—symptoms which are now considered to be due to the horse serum and not the antitoxin—will be avoided.

Dosage.—There is no definite rule for fixing the dose. It is known how much antitoxin is required to neutralize a given amount of toxin, but in practice there is no method of estimating the latter in any given case. Conclusions drawn from experience and clinical studies give the only practical guides. The dose should always be large, however, for the serum is harmless and it is better to administer too much than not enough. The average dose advised by the New York Health Department is 5000 units, repeated the following day if the condition of the patient has not improved. According to Holt "for a child over two years, an initial dose for a severe attack, including all laryngeal cases, should not be less than 4000 to 5000 units; and the dose should be repeated in six or eight hours provided no improvement is seen. Children under two years should receive from 2000 to 3000 units. Cases of exceptional severity where the injection is given late should receive from 8000 to 10,000 units, to be repeated in from six to eight hours if the progress of the disease is unfavorable. Mild cases should receive from 2000 to 3000 units as an initial dose, a second being rarely required."

An immunizing dose should be given to those exposed to the contagion in all cases, 1000 units for a child under two years old, and for older children and adults a larger dose (2000 units) may be administered. The immunity thus furnished is not permanent, however, lasting only three or four weeks.

[1] The strength of the serum is measured in units, a unit being the amount of antitoxin necessary to neutralize in a guinea-pig 100 fatal doses of diphtheria.

Time of Administration.—Antitoxin should be given as soon as a clinical diagnosis is made, not waiting for a bacteriological examination. There are no contraindications to its use in the presence of urgent symptoms. No matter how late a case is seen, an injection should be given, though it may not be possible to undo the harm already produced by the diphtheria toxin. Cases treated very early give the best results. This is well shown by the following table of the cases injected in 1902–4, prepared by the New York Health Department:

Day.	No. cases.	Case fatality.	Percentage.
1	623	10	1.6
2	1689	53	3.1
3 and 4	1871	127	6.7
5 and over	455	82	18

The Syringe.—The simpler the syringe, the better. The syringe should have a capacity of about 1 1/2 to 2 3/4 drams (5 to 10 c.c.). Glass syringes with asbestos packing or those with the solid glass piston,

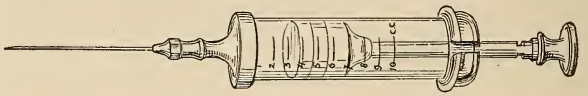


Fig. 123.—The record antitoxin syringe.

as the Luer, are most easily sterilized. The record syringe (Fig. 123) is also an excellent instrument. A moderately fine needle or the smallest through which the serum will flow is preferable to one of very large caliber. In charging the syringe it is better to remove the piston and

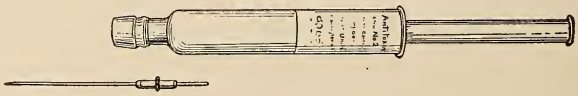


Fig. 124.—The New York Board of Health Antitoxin Syringe. The syringe comes sterilized and already loaded with antitoxin and, upon inserting the needle into the distal end, is ready for use.

pour the antitoxin into the syringe, as it is difficult to draw it up through the needle. The piston is then inserted and, with the syringe elevated, any air is expelled. Many of the manufacturers at the present time supply a syringe already sterilized and filled with antitoxin (Fig. 124). The advantages of this in the saving of time are obvious.

Site of Injection.—The subcutaneous tissues of the outer aspect of the thigh, of the back part of the axilla near the angle of the scapula, or of the upper portion of the abdomen are usually chosen for the injection (Fig. 125).

Asepsis.—The syringe and needles should always be sterilized by a thorough boiling before use. The operator's hands are cleansed as for any operation, and the skin at the site of injection is carefully prepared by first washing with a little soap and warm water, followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury, and then wiping the surface with alcohol and ether.

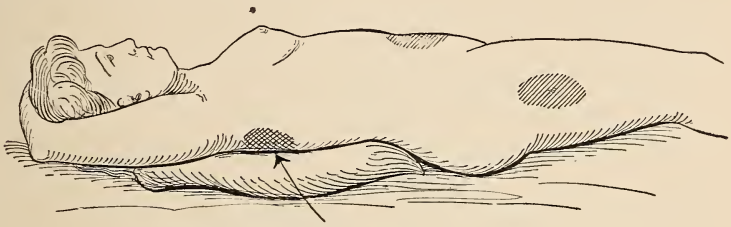


FIG. 125.—Sites for antitoxin injection.

Technic.—In order to prevent any undue excitement, the injection should be made with the patient in such a position that he cannot see what is going on; in children this is especially necessary. Care must be taken to expel any air from the syringe by elevating its point and depressing the piston a little. A fold of the skin from the area previously sterilized is then raised up between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, and, with the right hand, the needle is quickly plunged into the subcutaneous tissue (Fig. 126). If done quickly with a sharp-pointed needle, preliminary local anesthesia of the skin is unnecessary. The serum is then injected very slowly and the swelling produced is not massaged, being allowed to subside as the serum is absorbed. After withdrawal of the needle the puncture is sealed with collodion and cotton. Following the injection there may be a slight reaction consisting of some redness, edema, and pain at the site of puncture, but these usually subside in a short time.

Effects of Antitoxin.—In favorable cases a prompt and marked improvement in the local and general symptoms follows the use of antitoxin. In a few hours the pseudomembrane begins to lose its dirty color and becomes blanched and somewhat swollen. Within twelve to twenty-four hours the membrane loosens at the edges and rolls up, becoming detached in a mass, or in small pieces. This seems to take place more rapidly about the tonsils than elsewhere. The usual time for restora-

tion to the normal condition in the throat is twenty-four hours to three or four days. Sometimes the membrane, after disappearing, forms again; such cases should promptly receive more antitoxin.

In nasal diphtheria similar effects are observed, each irrigation bringing away small or large pieces of detached membrane. The nasal discharge and swelling soon diminish, and at the same time the mouth breathing ceases.

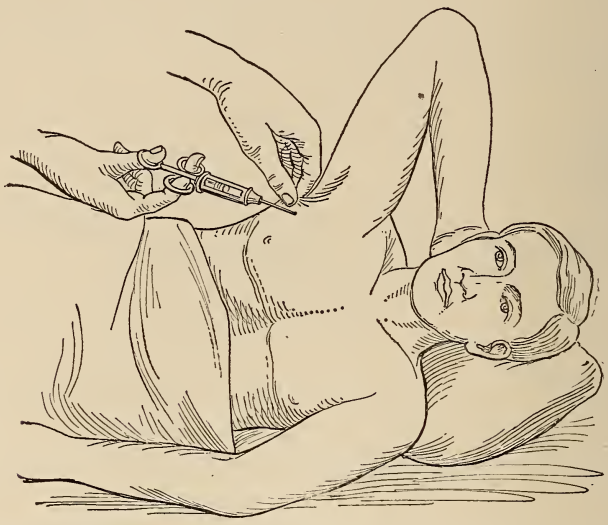


FIG. 126.—Showing the method of injecting diphtheria antitoxin in the subcutaneous tissue of the axilla.

In laryngeal diphtheria antitoxin prevents the extension of the membrane into the trachea and bronchi in the majority of cases, and since its introduction it has been necessary to operate upon a much smaller proportion of cases than formerly.

The effects upon the constitutional symptoms are likewise impressive. In favorable cases the general condition of the patient improves noticeably within twelve to twenty-four hours. The constitutional symptoms of toxemia disappear, the color and general appearance are altered, and the appetite begins to improve. The temperature may rise 1 or 2 degrees in the first four or five hours after the injection, and the pulse may be accelerated at the same time, but this is followed in favorable cases by a fall of the fever either by crisis or by lysis, the temperature becoming practically normal in two or three days. The persistence of fever is an indication for a second dose of antitoxin.

The reduction in the mortality rate since the introduction of anti-

toxin is well shown in the following table (Fig. 127) prepared by the New York Department of Health, the small reduction shown in the first three years of its use being explained by the fact that sufficiently large doses of antitoxin were not used at first and that the serum used later was more efficient.

Complications.—In a certain percentage of cases skin eruptions develop after several days. These may be erythematous, scarlatiform, morbiliform, or urticarial in character. Urticaria is said to follow in

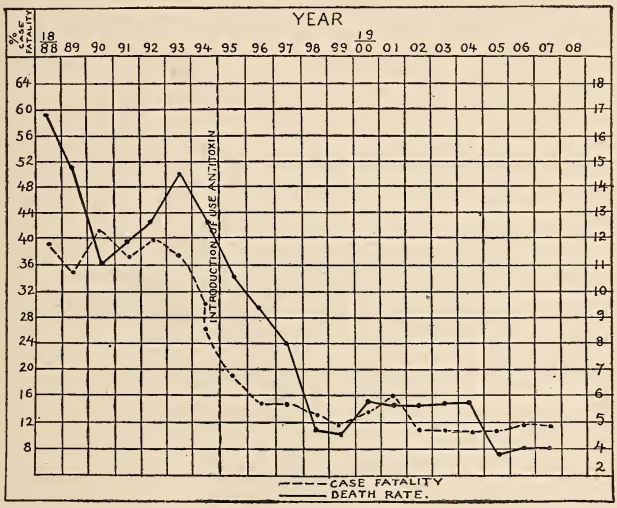


FIG. 127.—Chart prepared by the New York Board of Health, showing the reduction in the mortality from diphtheria since the introduction of antitoxin.

about 30 per cent. of the cases and usually comes on from the eighth to the fourteenth day. It frequently develops upon the buttocks, abdomen, and chest and may be the cause of great discomfort and annoyance to the patient. Infection and cellulitis may result from the injection if due regard to asepsis is not observed.

Painful conditions in the large joints, as the hips, knees, wrists, and shoulders, occur in a small proportion of the cases. These symptoms, however, are not due to the antitoxin, but are caused by the horse serum, and depend upon the susceptibility of the patient to the serum.

VACCINATION.

Vaccination is the inoculation with the vaccine or virus of cowpox for the purpose of inducing that disease in man and thereby affording partial or permanent protection against smallpox.

The immunity rendered by vaccination is not claimed to be invari-

ably complete. In a great majority of cases, though, a successful inoculation grants a person immunity to smallpox for a number of years, though the effects may in time wear off and the individual again become susceptible. The mortality in such cases, however, is very low compared with the mortality in those who have never been vaccinated. According to Osler, in the former it is 6 to 8 per cent. and in the unvaccinated not less than 35 per cent.

The nature of the protection thus afforded is not absolutely understood, but the results of vaccination are unquestionable and admirably attest its efficiency. Localities in which vaccination is systematically carried out develop fewer cases and present the lowest death rate from smallpox. In Germany, since 1874, compulsory vaccination and revaccination have been enforced and since then there have been no epidemics of smallpox in that country. On the other hand, the results of disregard to the value of vaccination are well illustrated by the mortality rate of smallpox in European countries between 1893 and 1897, inclusive, quoted by Schamberg (*New York Medical Journal*, Jan. 16, 1909) from the Imperial Board of Health reports of the German Empire. He says: "We are startled to note in this period there died in the Russian Empire, including Asiatic Russia, 275,502 persons from smallpox, Spain lost over 23,000 lives, Hungary over 12,000, Austria and Italy over 11,000. In Germany the number of smallpox deaths during this period was only 287, representing one death to every 1,000,000 of population a year." These statistics are certainly convincing. Compulsory vaccination and revaccination are without doubt the most efficient means for the prevention of smallpox. Where this is not possible, as in this country, physicians should take it upon themselves to see that every child coming under their care is properly vaccinated.

The Virus.—The virus should always be obtained from a reliable source. That from the calf is to be used by preference. Humanized lymph should never be employed except upon imperative occasions when bovine lymph is not procurable.

The virus is obtained under rigid aseptic precautions by curetting the pustule from a calf and making an emulsion of it with glycerin. This is then collected in capillary tubes and is hermetically sealed until used. The lymph should not be distributed until it has been tested for tetanus and other pathogenic germs, and an autopsy has been performed upon the calf to make certain it was free from disease. The lymph may also be obtained spread upon ivory or celluloid points, but they are not preferable to the capillary tubes as there is danger of the virus being contaminated by handling.

Time for Vaccination.—In choosing the time for vaccination the age and the general health of the individual should be taken into consideration. As a general rule, unless contraindicated, the child should be three to six months old before vaccination. The operation should be avoided if possible in dentition; and, in children who are delicate or suffering from malnutrition, syphilis, or skin eruptions, it should be postponed until the child is in good condition. The best season is in the early fall or spring when there is less danger of epidemics of contagious diseases, such as scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, whooping-cough, etc. Upon exposure to smallpox, whether the individual is in infancy or in old age, he should always be immediately vaccinated.

Instruments.—A sharp-pointed scalpel or a lancet is as useful an instrument as can be found for performing the scarification. Sharp

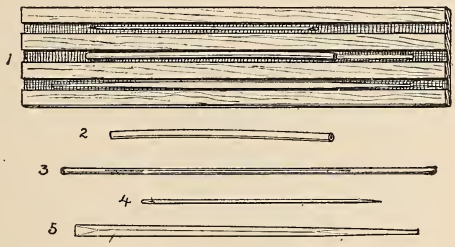


FIG. 128.—New York Department of Health vaccination outfit.

1. Instruments in case; 2, rubber tube for blowing the virus out of the tube; 3, tube containing virus; 4, needle for scarification; 5, stick for spreading the virus.

needles may also be employed and, as they are cheap, the same needle need not be used for more than one case. Special scarificators are made, but they have no advantages over a lancet or a needle. If the vaccine points are used, no scarificator is necessary.

The New York Department of Health supplies with each capillary tube of vaccine virus, a needle, a flat tooth pick for spreading the virus, and a piece of small rubber tubing which fits over one end of the capillary tube and is used to blow the vaccine out of the tube (Fig. 128).

Site of Vaccination.—The vaccination is performed either upon the arm or leg. As a rule, the arm is preferred as a site, especially in children who are running about, as being more easily kept at rest and less likely to be injured. Mothers often prefer to have their girls vaccinated upon the leg to avoid the disfiguring effect of the scar. If the arm is chosen, the point selected is at about the insertion of the

deltoid muscle; in the leg a spot on the outer aspect at the junction of the middle and upper third is selected.

Asepsis.—The operation of vaccination should be regarded as an important one and, as most of its dangers are due to infection, the operator should see that all aseptic precautions are observed. The instrument employed for scarifying the skin should be carefully sterilized and the same instrument should not be used more than once without resterilization. The hands of the operator are prepared as carefully as for any operation. The patient's skin is washed with soap and warm water followed by alcohol and ether and is allowed to dry. The use of strong disinfectants is not advised as the chances of a successful inoculation may be lessened.

Technic.—Vaccination by the scarification method is generally practised in this country. Incision draws too much blood and the

Fig. 129.—Vaccination. First step, scarifying the arm.

virus is apt to be washed away. A proper spot is chosen upon the arm or leg, and an area 1/8 to 1/4 inch (3 to 6 mm,) in diameter is scarified by making a number of scratches at right angles to each other in the skin with the point of the instrument just deep enough to draw serum, but no blood (Fig. 129). If more than one inoculation is to be made, as is frequently done, the areas scarified should be at a distance of at least 1 inch (2.5 cm.) apart. The virus is then deposited upon the scarified area, being rubbed in with some sterile instrument for a full minute and allowed to dry (Fig. 131). The site of vaccination is finally covered with a piece of sterile gauze held in place with two small

FIG. 130.—Vaccination. Second step, blowing the virus out of the capillary tube onto a small piece of wood.

FIG. 131.—Vaccination. Third step. Rubbing the virus into the scarified area.

strips of adhesive plaster, or, if desired, a wire shield (Fig. 132) may be used, provided it is applied in such a way as not to constrict the arm (Fig. 133). After the vesicle has formed, the part should be gently washed with sterile water once a day and dressed with fresh gauze or covered with a shield to prevent contact with the clothing.

Course of Vaccination.—Outside of a little irritation and redness at the site of inoculation there are no immediate developments and the wound heals. On the third day a papule appears surrounded by an area of slight redness. This is followed in twenty-four hours by the formation of a small vesicle which by the seventh or eighth day reaches its full development. It is usually round, 1/4 to 1/2 inch (6 to 12 mm.)

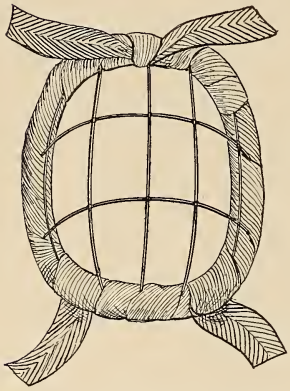


Fig. 132.—Vaccination shield.

Fig. 133.—Showing the shield in place.

in diameter, and full of limpid fluid. The center of the vesicle is depressed, while the margins are elevated and slightly indurated. By the tenth day a bright red areola has developed covering a space of from 1 to 2 inches (2.5 to 5 cm.) around the vesicle and the contents of the vesicle become purulent. In a day or two more the areola commences to fade and the vesicle dries up forming a dark brown crust. Usually about the twenty-first day this crust falls off, leaving a bluish pitted scar which later slowly fades to white.

Constitutional symptoms more or less marked accompany the eruption. Remittent fever of from 101° to 104° begins on the fourth day and may persist until the eighth or ninth day, when it drops gradually to normal. In children irritability, loss of appetite, and restlessness at night may accompany the fever. The axillary or inguinal

glands become swollen and sore, depending upon whether the arm or leg is the seat of inoculation.

Certain irregular types of vaccination are sometimes met with. In rare cases a generalized vaccine eruption with marked fever and other severe symptoms may occur. Single vesicles may also be produced on other parts of the body distant from the site of inoculation by autoinoculation from scratching. Sometimes the period of incubation is prolonged and the vesicle formation is delayed.

Complications.—Urticaria, impetigo contagiosa, and rashes resembling those of scarlet fever or measles have been observed. Erysipelas may occur at any time before the sore heals.

Suppuration and abscess of the axillary or inguinal glands sometimes follow vaccination. In anemic and unhealthy subjects, if infection occurs, cellulitis and deep ulcers may form, followed by extensive loss of tissue and large scars.

Syphilis is no longer feared under modern methods of vaccination; the same is true of tuberculosis, and it has been shown in addition that the tubercle bacillus is destroyed in glycerinated lymph. Tetanus can only follow carelessness and neglect of precautions in preparing the lymph.

Revaccination.—Immunity furnished by vaccination is not permanent, and in all persons revaccination should be performed several years after the first vaccination. The New York Health Department advises that revaccination be repeated at intervals of not more than three years if permanent immunity is to be acquired. The vaccination should be as thoroughly carried out as in the first instance. In cases of exposure to contagion during the interval, revaccination should be performed at once.

ACUPUNCTURE.

This is a small operation which consists in the insertion of needles or other small sharp instruments either into the superficial tissues for the purpose of relieving the tension in swollen or edematous areas, or directly into muscles or nerves for the relief of the pain of muscular rheumatism or of neuritis.

For the relief of tension, and to furnish an exit for the effusion beneath the skin, acupuncture is frequently employed in edema involving the extremities, labia, or scrotum, though, if the tissues are so greatly distended that sloughing seems imminent, incisions should be substituted for the punctures. In acute epididymitis and similar cases acupuncture is also often used with good results.

Of the second class of cases it is employed with greatest success in lumbago and sciatica. Just how acupuncture acts in such cases is not clear; relief of pain is not invariably afforded, for in some cases it seems to have no effect, but at any rate the method is worthy of trial, especially before more severe forms of treatment, as nerve stretching, etc., are instituted.

Instruments.—To relieve tension the punctures may be made with triangular-pointed surgeon's needles or with a very narrow-bladed bistoury (Fig. 134). Employed for the relief of the pain of muscular rheumatism or neuritis, half a dozen cylindrical needles about 3 or 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) long will be required. Long darning needles or sharp hat pins will answer very well.

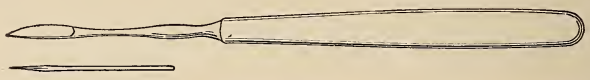


Fig. 134.—Instruments for acupuncture.

Asepsis.—The skin should be carefully sterilized by washing with warm water and soap, followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury; the instruments are to be boiled; and the operator's hands are cleansed as for any operation. It is especially important to observe all aseptic precautions both during and after puncture of dropsical effusions, as the tissues in such cases have poor resistance and are a good soil for infection.

Anesthesia.—There is but little pain connected with this operation, but if desired the skin at the sites of puncture may be frozen with ethyl chlorid.

Technic.—Puncture for the relief of tension simply consists in making a single or, when required, numerous deep stabs with the needle or bistoury into the swollen area, avoiding injury to important vessels or nerves. This allows the escape of serum which may be encouraged by the application of moist heat in the form of dressings saturated with some mild antiseptic, as boric acid.

When treating muscular rheumatism by this method, several sharp round needles are thrust through the skin into the painful parts of the affected muscle to a depth of 1 to 1 1/2 inches (2.5 to 3.8 cm.), or more, depending on the amount of adipose tissue, and are allowed to remain in place five to ten minutes. In removing them, care must be taken not to break them off in the tissues. Not infrequently the relief of pain is immediate.

Applied to a nerve, the same technic is employed. An endeavor is made to transfix the affected nerve with from four to six needles along the painful part of its course. It may sometimes be difficult to strike some of the smaller nerves, but with a large nerve like the sciatic there is usually no trouble. The patient's sensations will be a guide as to whether the nerve is reached, for, as soon as this occurs, a sharp pain will be felt different from that experienced as the needle passes through the superficial tissues. The needles when properly placed should be left in site about five or ten minutes.

VENESECTION.

Venesection, or phlebotomy, is an operation that consists in the opening of some superficial vein and the abstraction of blood from the general circulation for therapeutic purposes.

The beneficial effects of bleeding have been recognized from the time of Hippocrates. Unfortunately, though, bleeding was formerly much overdone, and in the early part of the last century it came to be the custom to bleed indiscriminately for almost any sickness. In consequence of its abuse this valuable operation has lost much of its popularity and is now but rarely practised. Popular prejudice, furthermore, often prevents its employment, so that even in cases where it is of undoubted therapeutic value the practitioner of to-day prefers to put his trust in drugs to accomplish the desired effects. In spite of this neglect, however, bleeding is a powerful and beneficial therapeutic measure when employed in the proper class of cases, and as Hare points out "the indications for venesection are as clear and well defined as are the indications for any remedy."

Indications.—These may be better appreciated by an understanding of what venesection accomplishes. In the first place, through the mechanical effect upon the circulation of removal of a quantity of blood, the tension in the blood-vessels is diminished, and the vascular tone becomes more evenly balanced, so that an engorged area, where the vessels are relaxed and dilated, is relieved. At the same time the speed of the circulating blood in the capillaries is accelerated, and stasis is further prevented, and the absorption of exudates hastened.

Upon the general system venesection also has beneficial effects causing a lessened activity of the various functions; the cardiac and respiratory actions become quieter, the temperature is lowered, and cell proliferation is less active.

In general, then, it may be said that venesection is indicated for the

relief of congestion in cases of excessive vascular tension evidenced by a rapid, strong, full, incompressible pulse, while low arterial tension and circulatory depression with a slow, soft, irregular, and compressible pulse are, as a rule, contraindications. Thus in sthenic types of croupous pneumonia with dilated right heart, dyspnea, and cyanosis, in pleurisy, peritonitis, pulmonary edema, pulmonary hemorrhage, emphysema with marked dyspnea and cyanosis, congestion of the brain, cardiac valvular disease with engorged right heart, bleeding both lowers vascular tension and relieves engorgement. In cases where toxins or other deleterious substances are present in the blood, as in eclampsia, uremic convulsions, illuminating-gas poisoning, poisoning by hydrogen sulphid, prussic acid, etc., bleeding serves the double purpose of reducing arterial tension and removing a definite quantity of toxic material. Large quantities of blood may be abstracted in such cases, followed by transfusion or saline infusion (the so-called "blood washing") with unquestionably good results.

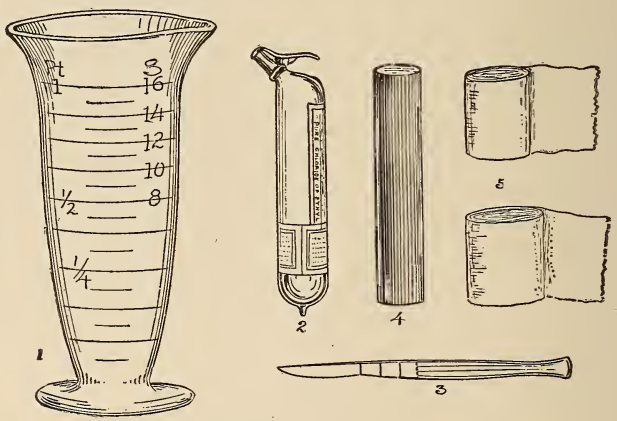


Fig. 135.—Instruments for venesection.
1, Glass graduate; 2, ethyl chlorid; 3, scalpel; 4, stick for patient to grasp; 5, bandages.

Instruments.—There will be required a scalpel or bistoury, a sterile gauze pad, several bandages, a round object as a stick or roller bandage for the patient to grasp, and a large glass graduate (Fig. 135).

Quantity Withdrawn.—On an average from 6 ounces (180 c.c.) to 12 ounces (360 c.c.) may be abstracted from an adult, and from 1 ounce (30 c.c.) to 3 ounces (90 c.c.) from a child, depending on the condition and the character of the pulse and upon the appearance of the patient. This amount may be increased, however, if the venesection is to be supplemented by transfusion or saline infusion. Under

such conditions 20 ounces (600 c.c.) or more may be removed from an adult.

Site of Operation.—Some one of the large veins in front of the elbow-joint is usually selected (Fig. 136), but the internal jugular or internal saphenous may be utilized.

Position of the Patient.—The patient should be sitting upright or in a semireclining position on a couch, with his head turned away from the seat of operation, as the sight of blood may cause faintness.

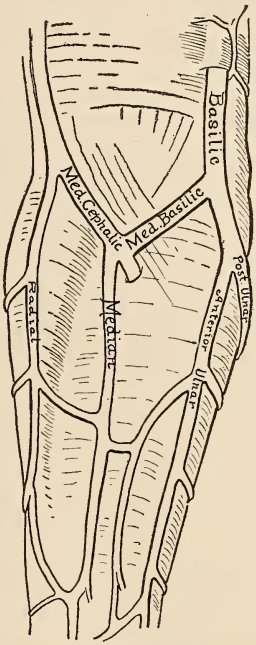


Fig. 136.—Superficial veins of the forearm. (Ashton.)

The semiupright position is a safeguard against withdrawing too much blood, as the patient becomes faint sooner than if he were lying down.

Asepsis.—While this is a small operation, at the same time all aseptic precautions should be observed. In former times many patients lost their lives from septic thrombosis. Accordingly, the instruments and dressings should be sterile, and the hands of the operator should be as carefully prepared as for any operation. The bend of the patient's elbow is first washed with warm water and soap, then rinsed with a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury, and finally with sterile water.

Anesthesia.—The area of incision may be anesthetized by infiltrating with a few drops of a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain, or by freezing with ethyl chlorid or salt and ice.

Technic.—A few turns of a roller bandage are placed about the patient's arm above the elbow with just sufficient tension to obstruct the venous circulation and make the veins stand out prominently (Fig. 137). By directing the patient to grasp some object and work his fingers while the arm is hanging down, the veins will become even more distended. The operator next identifies either the median

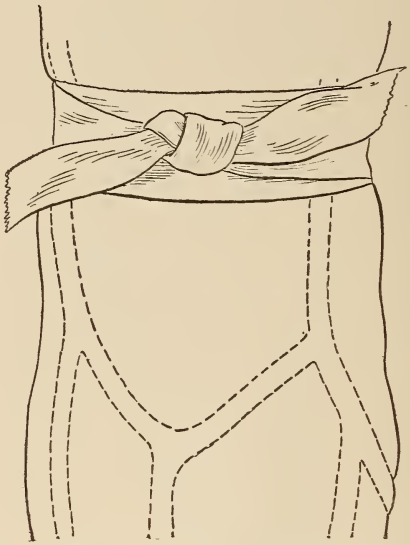


FIG. 137.—Venesection. First step, showing the application of the bandage to the arm. (Ashton.)

basilic or median cephalic vein, and, compressing it with his left thumb placed just below the seat of incision, makes a small cut transversely to the long axis of the vein (Fig. 138), which is exposed by dissection and a small opening made in its anterior wall (Fig. 139). The thumb is then removed and the blood is permitted to escape into a glass graduate (Fig. 140).

While cutting down on the vein care must be taken not to disturb the relative positions of the skin and vein by drawing on the skin, otherwise the cut through the skin and that into the vein will not coincide when the finger is removed and the skin released, with the result that the blood will escape under the skin into the subcutaneous tissues. If the median basilic vein is utilized, the incision into its wall must not be made too deeply for fear of wounding the brachial artery.

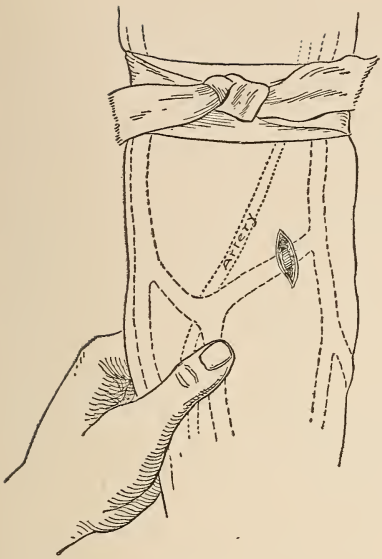


FIG. 138.

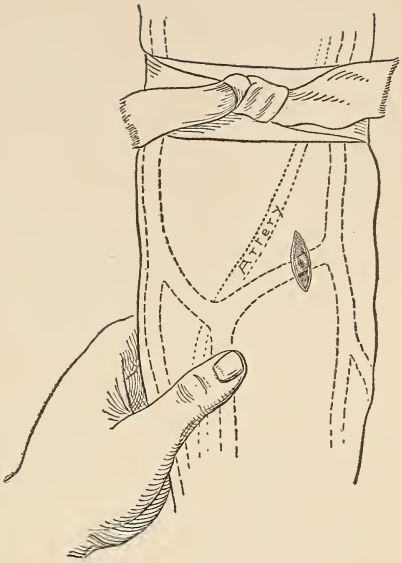


FIG. 139.

FIG. 138.—Venesection. Second step, vein exposed and operator's finger compressing the distal portion of the vessel.

FIG. 139.—Venesection. Third step, showing incision into vein walls.

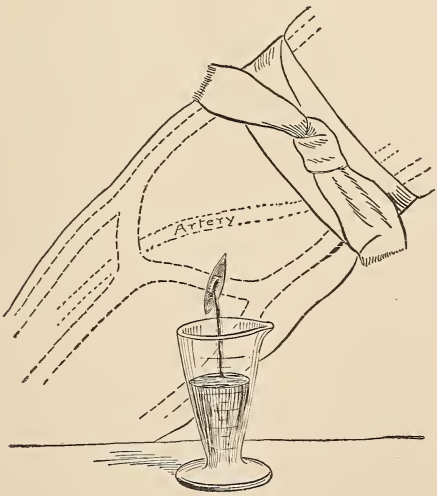


FIG. 140.—Venesection. Fourth step, showing the operator's finger removed from the vein and the blood being collected in a glass graduate.

When a sufficient quantity of blood has been abstracted, a gauze pad is held over the wound by the thumb, and the bandage is removed from the arm. The incision is then dressed with a sterile gauze compress held in place by a bandage. The patient should be instructed to carry the arm in a sling for a few days following this operation.

Complications.—The most serious complication is a puncture of the brachial artery by the incision into the vein producing an arterio-venous aneurysm. This may be avoided by carefully cutting down upon the vein and not incising skin, superficial tissues, and vein at one cut.

Sometimes a very painful neuralgia is a sequel to the operation, probably due to injury to some of the cutaneous nerves of the region. If the instruments are clean and proper aseptic precautions are observed, septic thrombosis is not to be feared.

SCARIFICATION.

Scarification consists in making multiple incisions into the tissues for the relief of local congestion or tension. By this method of local bleeding, engorged blood-vessels are emptied and effusions of serum are permitted to escape; thus undue tension from exudates is relieved, and the tendency of the tissues to slough is lessened.

For the relief of inflammatory conditions of the skin and mucous membranes scarification finds its chief application. Thus in inflamed ulcers, threatened gangrene from extreme tension, phlegmonous erysipelas, etc., prompt relief often follows its use. Scarification may also be employed in the place of multiple punctures for the relief of tension in marked edema of the extremities, labia, and scrotum. In urinary infiltration deep scarification becomes necessary to allow the escape of the extravasation and to prevent sloughing. In inflammatory affections and edemas of the pharynx, uvula, tonsils, and glottis it is often indicated; in involvement of the latter with progressive dyspnea and cyanosis the scarification should be performed without any delay.

Instruments.—An ordinary scalpel or bistoury is all that is necessary. A special scarifier (Fig. 141) may be employed, however, if desired. This instrument consists of a metal box containing a number of sharp blades, which, upon touching a spring, are suddenly forced out in such a way as to cut the tissues to which the instrument is applied to any desired depth.

For incising the tonsil, glottis, etc., a sharp-pointed curved bistoury wrapped with adhesive plaster to within 1/4 inch

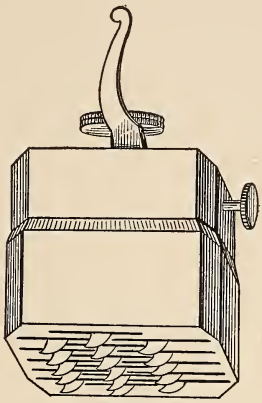


FIG. 141.—Automatic scarificator.

(6 mm.) of its point (Fig. 142) should be employed in the absence of a protected laryngeal knife (Fig. 143).

Asepsis.—The operation must be performed with all the usual aseptic precautions.

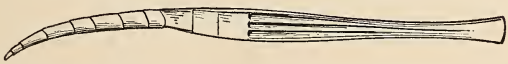


FIG. 142.—Knife wrapped with adhesive plaster.

Anesthesia.—Where extensive incisions are required, as in urinary extravasation, for example, nitrous oxid anesthesia will be required. In other cases local anesthesia with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain

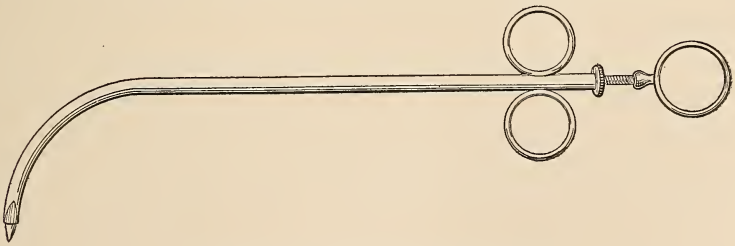


FIG. 143.—Protected laryngeal knife.

or by freezing, if the nutrition of the parts is unimpaired, will suffice. Mucous surfaces may be anesthetized with a 4 per cent. solution of cocain sprayed upon or applied directly to the parts.

Technic.—The incisions are made in parallel rows over the inflamed area, and, according to the indications, they may or may not extend through the entire thickness of the skin. They should always be made in the long axis of a limb (Fig. 144) and in other regions parallel to the lines of cleavage, care being taken not to wound the superficial nerves or large veins. Warm fomentations applied to the scarified area assist in maintaining the escape of blood and serum.

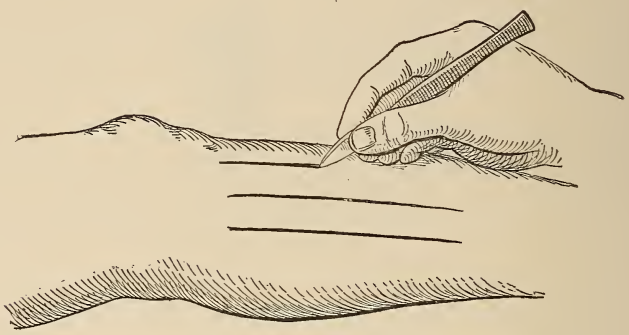


Fig. 144.—Showing the method of scarifying a limb.

Scarification of the larynx should always be performed with the aid of laryngoscopy (page 357). When a clear view of the edematous parts has been obtained, incisions about 1/4 inch (6 mm.) in length are made with the point of the protected bistoury in the areas of most marked swelling. When it is feasible, these incisions are made on the outer surfaces of the parts to avoid having blood flow into the larynx. A gargle of hot water or an inhalation of steam is then employed to encourage the bleeding and escape of the serum. This often gives complete relief in a few hours; if the symptoms are not improved, however, or the dyspnea recurs, tracheotomy (page 392) must be performed without hesitation.

DRAINAGE IN EDEMA OF THE LOWER EXTREMITIES.

There are three operative procedures that may be employed for relieving edema of the lower extremities when the tension becomes too great, namely, multiple punctures (page 159), incision (page 166), and drainage by the trocar and cannula. Of these, the latter is less troublesome, more cleanly, and certainly far more comfortable for the patient.

From one to four cannulæ may be employed at a time, and considerable fluid may be drained off in this way. When more than one cannula is used several quarts may be abstracted in twenty-four hours,

but the operator should be cautious about withdrawing too great a quantity for fear of inducing a condition of cerebral anemia. Should such a condition be produced, the drainage should, of course, be immediately stopped and stimulants administered.

Apparatus.—Southey's tubes (Fig. 145) or those of Curschmann may be employed. The former come in a set consisting of one trocar and four cannulæ. Each cannula has a lateral as well as a distal opening. The lumen of the cannula is about 1/25 inch (1 mm.) in diameter. In addition pieces of rubber tubing about 3 feet (90 cm.) long to lead from the tubes to receptacles are required.

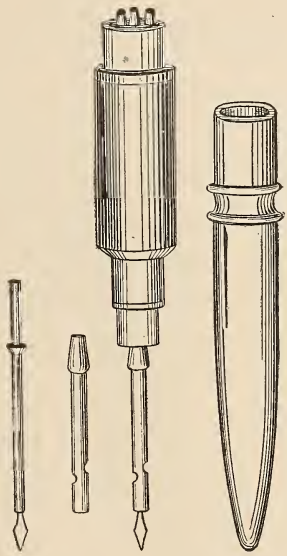


FIG. 145.—Southey's trocars and cannula.

Sites of Puncture.—The back or outer sides of the legs are usually chosen.

Asepsis.—Rigid asepsis should be observed to avoid infection. The trocar and cannula are boiled, the operator's hands carefully cleansed, and the spot chosen for puncture is first washed with green soap and water, then with a solution of bichlorid of mercury (1 to 2000), and finally with alcohol.

Technic.—One cannula at a time is placed on the trocar and is inserted an inch (2.5 cm.) or more into the subcutaneous tissues at the chosen site. The trocar is then removed and to the free end of the cannula is attached a rubber tube filled with some antiseptic solution. The distal end of the tube is allowed to drain into a basin placed upon

the floor by the side of the patient's bed (Fig. 146). The cannula should be secured in place by means of adhesive plaster, and sterilized dressings should be placed about it. Care should be taken that the cannulæ are not displaced, and for this reason, with restless patients,

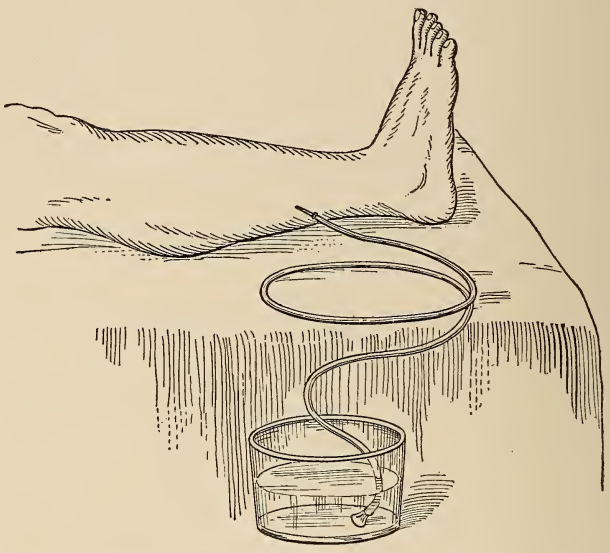


Fig. 146.—Showing the method of draining an edematous limb with Southey's cannula. (After Gumprecht.)

it is better to remove them at night. It is preferable in any case to make new punctures than to leave the cannulæ in place for several days. After removal of the cannulæ, the sites of the punctures should be sealed with collodion and cotton.

CUPPING.

Cupping may be either dry or wet according to the method of application. Dry cupping produces a local congestion of the superficial tissues and relieves congestion of the deeper subjacent organs by deviating the blood from these parts. Wet cupping, in addition, actually abstracts blood from the tissues. Cupping finds its chief application in the relief of congestion of deeply placed organs as the brain, spinal cord, lungs, liver, kidneys, etc.

Apparatus.—Special cupping glasses supplied with a rubber bulb (Fig. 147) for exhausting the air are obtainable and will be found very convenient, but the ordinary cupping glasses in which the vacuum is created by igniting a little alcohol smeared over the interior of the cup

are just as efficient. In an emergency, 2-ounce (59 c.c.) whisky or wineglasses, or thick tumblers with smooth rounded edges will answer equally well. From 8 to 12 cups will be required in dry cupping and from 2 to 6 in wet cupping, depending upon the extent of surface to which they are to be applied. In addition there should be provided

Fig. 147.—Bulb form of cupping glass.

some alcohol, a small stick to the end of which a cotton swab is attached, and matches or an alcohol flame. If wet cupping is to be employed, there will also be required a sharp scalpel or lancet (Fig. 148).

Sites of Application.—Cupping glasses are never to be applied directly over inflamed tissues on account of the pain that would result.

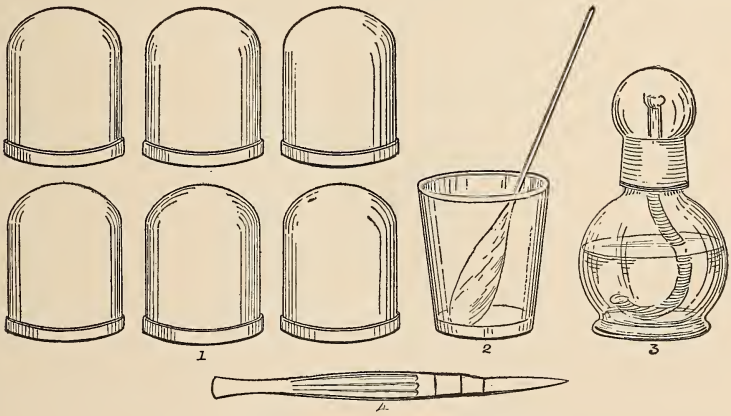


Fig. 148.—Instruments for wet cupping.
1, Cupping glasses; 2, swab in alcohol; 3, alcohol lamp; 4, scalpel.

Nor should they be placed over bony or irregular surfaces on account of the impossibility of excluding air. Where the brain is the seat of the trouble, the cups are applied to the back of the neck; in pericarditis, to the precordial region; in involvement of the lungs or pleura, to the chest between the vertebral column and scapular line; in renal con-

gestion or acute nephritis, to the lumbar regions; in affections of the eye, to the temples; etc. Wet cups, however, are often followed by scarring, hence they should not be applied over conspicuous regions or upon the shoulders or chests of women.

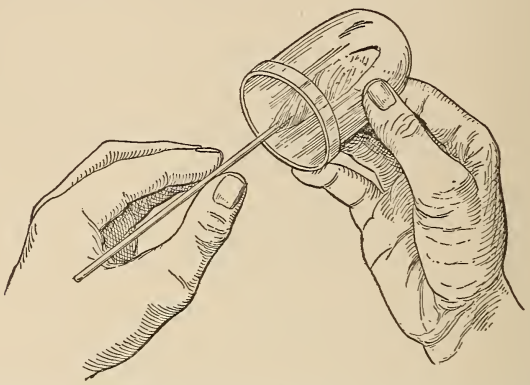


FIG. 149.—Cupping. First step, swabbing the interior of the cupping glass with alcohol.

Technic.—1. *Dry Cupping.*—Any hair should be first shaved off the part and the surface of the skin dampened with warm water so that the cups will adhere. To apply cups supplied with an exhausting bulb, simply compress the rubber bulb, then place the cup upon the skin,

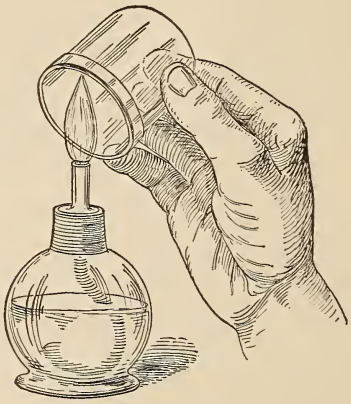


FIG. 150.—Cupping. Second step, igniting the alcohol in the cupping glass.

and release the bulb. A partial vacuum is thus produced and the skin and underlying tissues engorged with blood are sucked up into the cup.

When ordinary cups are employed, the swab, saturated with alcohol, is lightly wiped over the interior of each cup (Fig. 149), care being

taken not to leave any excess of alcohol that may run down over the edges. The alcohol is then ignited (Fig. 150), and the cup is quickly and tightly applied to the skin. The contained air is rapidly exhausted by the flame, and, as the cup cools, a strong vacuum is created, which draws up the underlying tissues (Fig. 151) and produces local congestion. A number of cups—anywhere from eight to ten—may be applied in the same manner over any given region. If the cups are air-tight, the flame is extinguished before the patient feels the heat from the burning alcohol. When the swelling of the skin and underlying tissues has taken place to such an extent as to replace the ex-

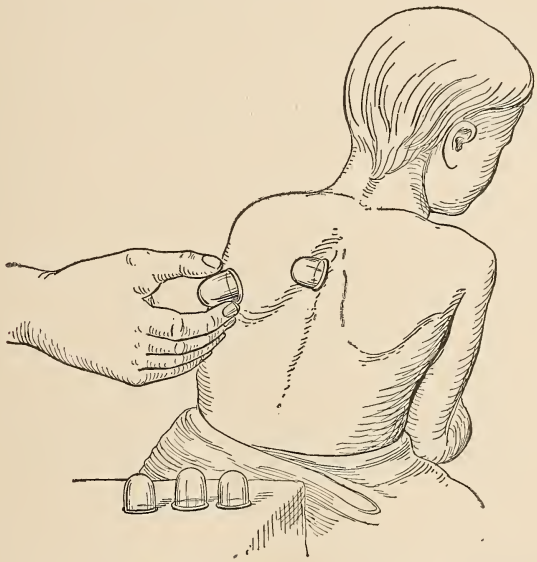


Fig. 151.—Cupping. Third step, the application of the cups.

hausted air, the cups become loosened and drop off. If, however, it is desired to remove the cups before this has occurred, simply tip the cup to one side and press down the skin at the edge of the glass and thus allow air to enter.

2. *Wet Cupping.*—By this method a definite amount of blood may be removed, each cup being capable of abstracting from 1 to 3 drams (3.75 to 11.25 c.c.). The cups are first applied to the region as already described; then with a scalpel parallel incisions about 1/3 inch (8.5 mm.) apart are made, care being taken to incise the skin only, for, if the subcutaneous tissues are cut into, particles of fat will be drawn up into the cuts when the cups are reapplied. The cups are then immediately applied for the second time. Blood will be drawn

from the scarified area into the cups until the vacuum is exhausted and the cups fall off. If it is desired to withdraw more blood, the cups are emptied and, after washing away the clots from the cut surface, they are applied again, or hot fomentations may be employed to encourage the bleeding. When sufficient blood has been withdrawn, a sterile gauze dressing is applied over the scarified region.

LEECHING.

Leeching may be employed for the purpose of abstracting blood from contused or congested areas inaccessible to wet cupping. It is thus a valuable means of local blood-letting in ecchymoses, or beginning acute inflammation about the eye, ear, nose, gums, genitals, etc.

There are two varieties of leech used for this purpose: the small American leech which is capable of withdrawing about a dram (3.75 c.c.) of blood and the Sweedish leech which will suck from 3 to 4 drams (11.25 to 15 c.c.). According to the amount of blood it is desired to remove, from one to six leeches may be applied at one time. Only those coming from clean, uncontaminated water should be used.

Sites of Application.—It should be remembered that the leech produces a triangular cut in the skin which results in a permanent scar, hence they should not be placed upon conspicuous portions of the body. They should never be applied to regions where there is much loose cellular tissue, such as the eyelids, labia, scrotum, or penis, for extensive ecchymoses may be the result. As their bite is irritating, they should not be applied directly to an inflamed area; instead, they are to be applied to the periphery. They should never be allowed to take hold of the skin directly over a superficial artery, vein, or nerve.

Leeches are generally applied to the temples or the back of the neck in congestion or inflammation of the brain, to the mastoid and in front of the tragus in acute mastoiditis and acute otitis media, to the perineum when the scrotum, penis, or labia are the regions affected, and to the coccyx for the relief of congested or inflamed hemorrhoids.

Preparation of the Skin.—To avoid infection the skin over the region to which the leech is applied should be washed with soap and water. If the part is hairy, it should be first shaved.

Technic.—The leech is applied to the part and confined under a pill-box or wineglass until it takes hold. A special leech-tube or a test-tube may be employed for this purpose, in which case the leech is placed in the tube tail or large end first and the tube is then inverted so that the leech's head comes in contact with the skin. This may

be removed as soon as the leech takes hold, but, in employing leeches about the orifices of mucous cavities, they should always be confined so as to prevent their escaping into the interior. If the leeches are removed from the water an hour or so before using, they will take hold more readily. Making a puncture of the skin and applying the leech to the bleeding spot or rubbing the skin with sweetened water or milk will cause the leech to take hold, if it does not seem inclined to do so. When once the leech has begun to draw blood, it should not be pulled off—it will let go of itself when filled. If it is desirable, however, to remove it sooner, sprinkling salt over it will induce it to let go.

By applying hot fomentations to the part after the removal of the leech bleeding can be encouraged and often an ounce (30 c.c.) or more of blood may be withdrawn in this way. After removal of the leech the bite should be bathed with sterile water and a small gauze dressing applied.

Sometimes a considerable and troublesome bleeding continues from the leech bite, due to the fact that the tissues became infiltrated with

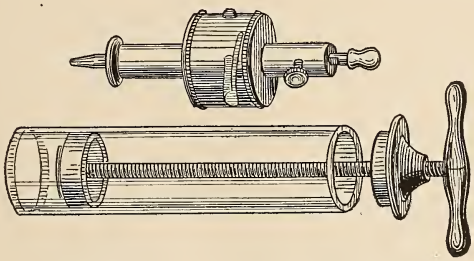


Fig. 152.—Artificial leech.

material excreted from the throat of the leech which prevents coagulation of the blood. The bleeding can usually be controlled, however, by compression or by applying a piece of cotton saturated with some styptic, as a solution of 1 to 1000 adrenalin chlorid, alum, or tannic acid. The use of the actual cautery or passing a harelip pin or needle beneath the bite and winding a thread about the two ends so as to constrict the part are also advised. Failing in these measures, the bite should be excised and the tissues sutured.

The Artificial Leech.—This apparatus may be employed instead of live leeches. It consists of a small cupping apparatus combined with a scarifier (Fig. 152). The latter is in the form of a small steel cylinder containing a circular lancet propelled by a cord or a spring. The skin is first scarified, by drawing upon the cord which causes the

lancet to rapidly rotate, as shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 153), the blades of the instrument being adjusted so as to cut to the

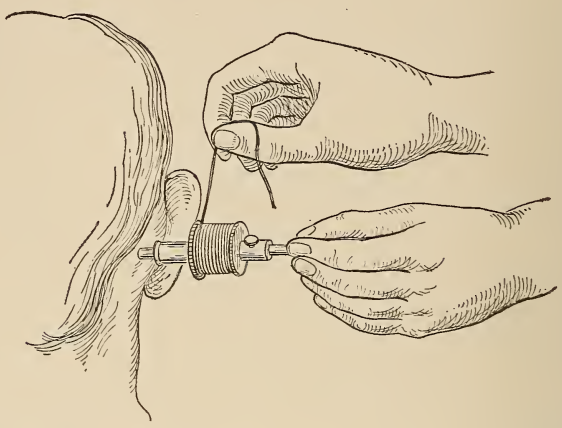


Fig. 153.—Application of the artificial leech to the mastoid. (After Ballenger.) First step, showing the method of scarifying.

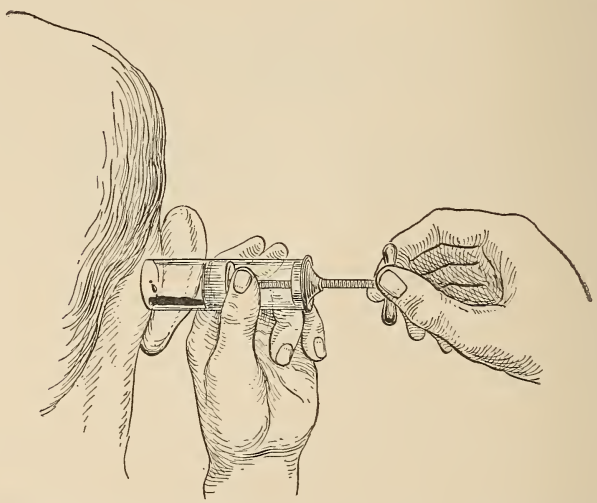


Fig. 154.—Application of the artificial leech to the mastoid. (After Ballenger.) Second step, withdrawing blood.

desired depth. Then the cupping tube is applied and blood abstracted by withdrawing the piston and creating a vacuum (Fig. 154). With this instrument as much as 1 ounce (30 c.c.) of blood may be drawn.

CHAPTER VII.

BIER'S HYPEREMIC TREATMENT.

While the value of artificially producing hyperemia with the definite purpose of increasing the inflammatory reaction has only recently been recognized, this mode of treating inflammation has been unconsciously employed for centuries. Hot applications, hot air, poultices, counterirritants, scarification, blisters, etc., which were formerly used with the idea that they lessened congestion in deeply inflamed areas through the production of a local hyperemia, we now know have no such action, but instead cause a marked hyperemia of the deeper as well as the superficial structures.

It is likewise interesting to note that as early as the sixteenth century Ambroise Paré employed artificial congestion in delayed union of fracture due to insufficient callus formation. Others later and independently have called attention to the value of hyperemia in similar conditions. To Bier, however, belongs the credit of placing treatment by hyperemia upon a logical and scientific basis, and of demonstrating its great practical value.

As is well known, there are two distinct forms of hyperemia, namely, active and passive. The former, obtained by means of dry hot air, produces a more active flow of arterial blood through the parts, and is especially useful for the absorption of the products of chronic, non-tubercular inflammations. The passive, venous, or obstructive form of hyperemia, as it is designated, has for its object the increase of the amount of venous blood in the part, and may be produced by means of elastic compression of the venous circulation, or by suction cups. This form gives the best results in pyogenic infections, whether acute or chronic.

PASSIVE HYPEREMIA.

Bier was first led to employ passive hyperemia through study of the observations of Farre and Travers who, as far back as 1815, called attention to the frequency of phthisis in persons whose lungs were rendered anemic because of stenosis of the pulmonary orifice, and by the reverse of this, namely, the rarity of pulmonary tuberculosis in individuals suffering from cardiac conditions tending to produce con-

gestion or hyperemia of the lungs, as later pointed out by Rokitansky. Impressed by these observations, Bier conceived the idea of artificially producing a hyperemia for the cure of tubercular affections in other parts of the body. Encouraged by the results obtained in the treatment of tubercular affections, he soon extended the use of hyperemia to the treatment of acute inflammatory surgical conditions, with most remarkable results. In this he was materially aided by his associate, Klapp, who broadened the scope of the method by devising variously shaped glass cups and vacuum apparatus for producing a hyperemia of regions of the body not amenable to the constricting band, though it is true Bier had himself employed this method previously and had abandoned it.

Treatment by hyperemia is based on the theory that inflammation represents nature's efforts for protection of the body against bacterial invasion and in the restoration of a part to a healthy condition. Bier's teachings in regard to inflammation take exactly the opposite view from what has hitherto been held and taught. Formerly it was the aim of treatment to combat in every way possible the phenomena accompanying an inflammation. In the presence of pain, heat, redness, and swelling, cold applications, elevation of the part, rest, and immobilization were advocated for the relief of these symptoms. According to Bier, however, the redness, heat, and swelling of an inflammation are but the outward signs of the effort on the part of nature to overcome noxious influences and produce a cure; and these are to be encouraged as beneficial instead of combated. An attempt was accordingly made to artificially reproduce the most evident of these phenomena, namely, congestion or hyperemia, and thereby increase the natural resistance of the tissues.

Difficult as it may be to give up our old ideas and accept a method of treatment so radically at variance with former teachings, the results obtained under hyperemia, properly carried out, are in certain cases so remarkable and so far in advance of any other methods as to furnish ample evidence of its superior value and to prove conclusively the correctness of the theories upon which Bier's treatment rests.

Effects of Hyperemia.—The beneficial effects of hyperemia are most striking—the more marked, the earlier the treatment is begun.

Diminution of Pain.—The prompt relief of pain is one of the most remarkable features of the treatment. Accepting the theory that pain from an inflammation is due to irritation of the cells and end organs by toxins, as well as to the high specific gravity of the inflammatory

exudate, its relief under the influence of hyperemia, which both destroys and dilutes toxins and also dilutes the exudates, may be readily understood. If pain be not relieved, or at least mitigated, or if discomfort results from the treatment, the operator's technic is at fault. The patient should always be impressed with the necessity of reporting any discomfort in the part subjected to the hyperemia, and his sensations should be an important guide for the operator.

Through the prompt decrease of pain and sensitiveness, reflex contracture of muscles is avoided and earlier motion in a part is possible. This is especially important in infections involving tendon sheaths and joints, as with early motion much better functional results are possible. Even in an extremely sensitive joint, it is remarkable how quickly slight motion may be painlessly practised under hyperemia.

Bactericidal Action.—It has been shown by experiments upon animals as well as by clinical evidence that hyperemia is fatal to bacterial life. Nötzel succeeded in fifty-one cases out of sixty-seven in counteracting the effects of fatal doses of anthrax and streptococci injected into the extremities of rabbits, by first inducing congestion in these parts, the same doses later, in the absence of hyperemia, proving fatal. Clinical experience also proves that certain forces are brought to bear by the hyperemia which either directly or indirectly antagonize bacterial growth and either destroy or dilute the toxins. Beginning infection, such as a furuncle or a carbuncle, in which redness, tenderness, swelling, and slight infiltration are the only signs present, can thus often be made to subside without suppuration, while, if suppuration has already developed, the infectious process may be prevented from extending to the deeper tissues and the clinical course be greatly shortened. Accidental soiled wounds, which from experience we have every reason to believe will become infected, under the influence of hyperemia can often be made to heal without infection, and not infrequently by primary union, and there is no better means than the increased secretion induced by the hyperemia for thoroughly flushing out and rapidly cleansing these dirty wounds.

There is considerable difference of opinion as to the agent underlying this bactericidal action, and several theories have been advanced in explanation. Some believe that it is due to an increase in the phagocytes; some consider the carbonic acid of the venous blood to be the agent; others offer Wright's theory as to increase of the opsonic index as the beneficent factor; and still others claim that the increased transudate induced by the hyperemia mechanically flushes out the affected part and thereby dilutes the toxins and removes dead bacteria.

It is difficult to say which is the exact cause. Bier himself, I believe, inclines to the phagocytosis theory. Personally, the writer feels that the mechanical flushing of the part by the increased transudate is quite an important factor, especially in the presence of open wounds or sinuses.

Limitation of the Pathological Process.—Under hyperemia, necrosis of even badly damaged parts is often prevented by the superabundant nourishment of the tissues, or, when the infection has advanced to the destruction of tissues, the disease process is more promptly localized, and a line of demarcation between the healthy and diseased tissues is earlier in evidence. Sloughs and sequestra are thus early separated and cast off, while in tubercular affections connective tissue replaces the tubercular, and the disease gradually dies out.

Solvent and Absorbent Action.—Both the active and the passive forms of hyperemia act as solvents, while the active, in addition, has a very marked absorbent action. The products of inflammation, as infiltrations, exudates, and plastic changes, are dissolved, so to speak, and their absorption is thus favored. Careful application of hyperemia thus makes unnecessary many of the operations of resection, etc. This is well illustrated in the excellent functional results, with freedom from ankylosis and deformity, obtained in tubercular and other joint affections.

Indications.—Passive hyperemia has been recommended for all kinds of acute inflammatory processes and many of the chronic ones, and the literature of the past few years teems with numerous favorable reports of its use, not only in purely surgical affections, but in the specialties and in medicine as well.

The surgical conditions in which it has been found to be especially beneficial may be summarized as follows: Acute infections and inflammations, such as furuncles, carbuncles, felons, infected wounds, infection of tendon sheaths, lymphangitis, lymphadenitis, mastitis, gonorrheal arthritis, and other forms of acute infections of joints, acute bone infections, burns; as a prophylactic measure in soiled or dirty wounds, compound fractures; in chronic affections, such as tuberculosis of bones, joints, glands, tendon sheaths, testicles; delayed union of fractures; fistulæ; old discharging sinuses; and infected leg ulcers uncomplicated by varicose veins. Its use is, however, contraindicated in lesions complicated by thrombosis of veins. In erysipelas its value is doubtful; in fact, erysipelas has been known to develop under prolonged hyperemia in tubercular lesions which were complicated by open sinuses. In diabetes, likewise, the results have not always been good.

Passive hyperemia has also been employed with success in medicine for such conditions as acute rheumatism, gout, and pulmonary tuberculosis. For the latter condition Kuhn has devised a mask of thin celluloid which by means of an adjustable valve cuts off some of the air entering the alveoli and thus induces a suction hyperemia.

In a host of other affections falling within the domain of rhinology, otology, gynecology, obstetrics, and dermatology, passive hyperemia has been recommended and applied with varying degrees of success, but further experience and investigation will be necessary before it can be stated precisely what are the therapeutic indications and contraindications of this very valuable method of treatment.

General Principles Underlying Hyperemic Treatment.—As emphasized by the author of this method of treatment, and others, it is not a panacea or cure for all troubles. One should recognize that it has its limitations. In some of the milder forms of infection, complete cure may often be effected by hyperemia alone; in other cases, of the more severe infections, it forms only a part of the treatment, and operative interference should never be delayed when indicated. *Pus must always be promptly evacuated when present*, and cold abscesses likewise are to be opened. This is accomplished by small incisions or punctures, the old-time extensive incisions, which often result in unsightly scars and even deformities, being unnecessary under this form of treatment. The hemorrhage incident to such incisions should be controlled by packing the wound for two to three hours before the hyperemia is induced. In an infection of the tendon sheaths, the anatomy of the parts should be carefully kept in mind and the incisions made accordingly. Small multiple incisions are employed and should be so placed as to avoid cutting the transverse palmar ligaments opposite the finger joints. In the case of infection of a large joint, the pus is aspirated and the joint cavity is irrigated through a large trocar; in other localities, ordinary surgical principles should be the guide as to the incision. The curettages of abscess cavities is avoided, while drains and tampons are discarded, as the secretions that are poured out under the artificial hyperemia serve to keep the wound open. *Certain cases of very rapidly extending infection, with acute onset, however, require early incision in conjunction with the hyperemia*, even before softening has occurred. If incisions are not made, the hyperemia may do harm and the local inflammation become worse, for the transudate which is induced by the hyperemia, added to the exudate already present, has no outlet and may drive the bacteria and their toxins into healthy tissue and favor the extension of the infection.

In inflammations involving joints or tendon sheaths, mild active and passive motion is carried out from the first day, in order to obtain the best functional results, provided this can be done without producing pain. Slight motion is harmless so long as it is painless. For this reason, no immobilizing dressing need be applied during the treatment, open wounds being merely covered with moist antiseptic gauze.

In acute infections, the results are often prompt and most striking. In favorable cases, the temperature declines, pain is relieved, extension to deeper tissues is prevented, and the process rapidly subsides or at least the clinical course is much shortened. Swelling and redness are temporarily increased, and are to be expected as part of the treatment. The discharge from open wounds is at first most abundant, but this likewise rapidly subsides, and with it the edema and redness.

In chronic lesions of a tubercular nature, the treatment must be carried out for months. In the case of joints, the pain and swelling slowly diminish, the contour of the joint again becomes distinguishable, and mobility gradually increases; secretions from sinuses become serous instead of purulent, the sinus taken on a healthy appearance and finally closes. In tubercular affections, likewise, slight motion of the affected limb is allowed, provided it produces no pain. Fixation of the joint, in cases of tuberculosis of the wrist, elbow, or shoulder can thus usually be dispensed with—a sling at most is used—but in knee or foot tuberculosis a suitable apparatus should be worn, or the part so immobilized by a movable splint when the patient is moving about that pressure is removed from the diseased articular surfaces. In the presence of contractures of the joints, suitable extension is applied and used in conjunction with the hyperemic treatment.

Bier gives as contraindications to the use of hyperemia in tuberculosis of joints the following:

1. Commencing amyloid disease and advanced pulmonary involvement.

2. Large abscesses, filling up the whole joint cavity and demanding operation.

3. Faulty position of the joint, such that cure would give a joint less useful than could be obtained by resection. In such conditions he advises operative interference.

Successful hyperemic treatment necessitates correct technic, and many of the poor results at first obtained by those unfamiliar with this method may be ascribed to errors in this direction. It certainly requires time and close attention, as well as considerable experience on the part of the attendant, to obtain good results; but, if the treatment be

properly carried out with perseverance, one will be amply repaid. At first the patient must be carefully watched as, with the use of the elastic band, for instance, it may be necessary to remove or reapply the constriction several times in the course of a single treatment in order to maintain the proper degree of hyperemia. Intelligent patients may later be instructed in carrying out the treatment with either the bandage or the cup, and in time they themselves can apply the treatment at home, but they should always remain under the supervision of the surgeon.

Methods of Producing Passive Hyperemia.—As already indicated, the passive form of hyperemia may be obtained by means of soft rubber bandages or by special suction apparatus. The principle in each is the same, but the technic requires special description.

Passive Hyperemia By Means of Constricting Bands.—This is the oldest method of producing an obstructive hyperemia. It is especially applicable to affections involving the extremities, head, and neck. The hip-joint is the only one in either of the extremities to which the method cannot be satisfactorily applied. There is no doubt that the proper application of the band requires more skill than does cupping. Exact technic is necessary, and great caution must be

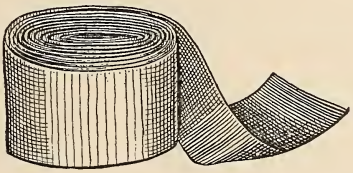


Fig. 155.—Esmarch elastic bandage for obstructive hyperemia.

observed not to exceed the proper grade of hyperemia, and in tubercular cases not to lower the vitality of the tissues by too prolonged obstruction. Only a mild hyperemia is necessary to produce results; otherwise, distinct harm is done. For this reason, the bandage should be applied by the surgeon himself until an intelligent and competent person of the household can be instructed in its proper application.

Apparatus.—For most cases, a soft, thin elastic bandage, such as Esmarch's or Martin's, about 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) in breadth, is employed (Fig. 155).

For the shoulder-joint and testicles, rubber tubing is used in place of a bandage. That used about the shoulder should be of fairly stout rubber, and about a foot long (30 cm.); while for the scrotum, a catheter or a piece of drainage-tube of small size answers.

To produce hyperemia of the head and neck, a rubber bandage measuring about 1 1/4 inches (3 cm.) in width may be used, or a special neck-band made for the purpose may be obtained. A garter elastic, about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) in width and provided with hooks and eyes so that it may be adjusted to any size, as shown by the accompanying illustration (Fig. 156), answers the purpose admirably.

Site of Application.—The constriction should always be applied over healthy tissue and well above the area of inflammation. In involvement of the hand, for instance, the bandage is applied above the elbow, and above the knee if the foot be the seat of trouble. To avoid undue compression continually at the same spot, it is well to change the location of the bandage at each application, moving it a little either up or down the limb.

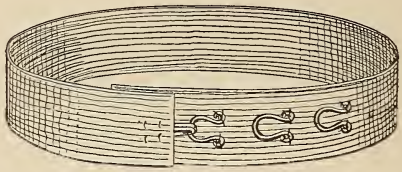


FIG. 156.—Elastic garter for producing obstructive hyperemia of the neck. (After Meyer-Schmieden.)

Duration of Application.—In the treatment of acute processes, the best results are obtained from prolonged stasis, namely, from twenty to twenty-two hours a day. The bandage is accordingly applied for ten or eleven hours, then discarded for two or one hours, and reapplied for another ten to eleven hours. The bandage is applied daily and, as the condition improves, the duration of the daily constriction may be diminished until it is only of from one to two hours.

For tubercular affections shorter applications are used, the bandage being applied once or twice a day from one to four hours at a time. In his early work on tubercular affections, Bier first employed short periods of hyperemia, and then prolonged and almost continuous hyperemia, but he experienced many failures and bad results with the latter. He found that prolonged stasis in this class of cases was apt to devitalize the parts and lead to the rapid formation of cold abscess, as well as to the development of septic abscess, lymphangitis, adenitis, erysipelas, etc., so that he returned to the short applications of from one to four hours a day. In cases of acute hot abscess formation, however, due to a mixed infection of open sinuses, the application may be

extended to the longer periods—twice, ten or eleven hours—until the acute process has subsided.

Technic.—To apply the bandage, its initial extremity is first wet sufficiently to make it adhere to the skin and prevent it from slipping. The bandage is wound around the limb with moderate tension six or eight times well above the seat of disease, each layer overlapping the preceding by about 1/2 inch (1 cm.). The bandage is then made secure by adhesive plaster or tapes previously sewed to the terminal end (Fig. 157).

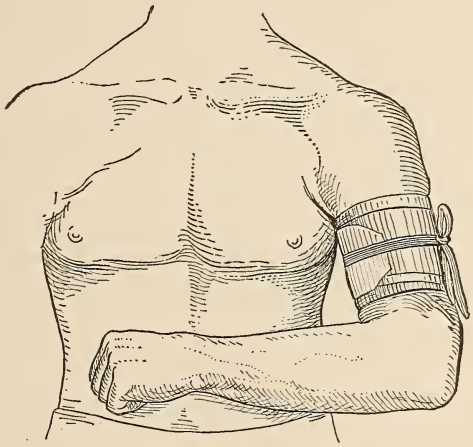


FIG. 157.—Showing the method of applying the elastic bandage to the arm.

The degree of hyperemia is of the utmost importance. The object is simply to moderately constrict the veins of a part, without in any way interfering with the arterial supply, thereby partly checking the reflux of blood and increasing the quantity of venous blood normally present. It requires practice and careful attention to detail to apply the bandage in such a way that the arteries are not compressed, while at the same time the proper venous obstruction is obtained. If the constriction is applied properly, the veins in the part distal to the bandage become slightly distended, and the part takes on a bluish-red hue and becomes warm to the touch. This degree of hyperemia is essential, as the hot hyperemia only has therapeutic value. As already emphasized, *the pulse should never be obliterated.* It must at all times be distinguished, not even weakened. Furthermore, the application of the bandage should never cause pain or annoyance, or hyperesthesia of the part. If too great a degree of compression is employed, nutritional disturbances from the increased stasis injures the tissues and

reduces their natural resistance. In such a case, a white edema is produced, or the skin becomes grayish-blue in color, or has a mottled red and white appearance, and the part remains cold to the touch. Such a condition demands removal of the bandage and its proper reapplication.

For obtaining the proper degree of hyperemia, it has been suggested that a sphygmomanometer, such as the Riva Rocci instrument, for example, be employed. The cuff is secured about the part in the same manner as would be done in taking the blood pressure and the systolic pressure is estimated. The mercury is then allowed to drop about 10 mm., which gives the proper tension, after which the tube leading to the inflation band is tightly clamped.

In chronic cases it is sometimes very difficult to obtain the proper amount of hyperemia, and several procedures have been advised to increase the congestion. Placing the part in a bath of very hot water for ten minutes before the constriction is applied often suffices. In other cases, the part may be first exsanguinated by means of an Esmarch bandage, as would be done preliminary to an amputation, and upon removal of the bandage a profuse reactionary flow results, after which the constrictor is applied.

If the constriction is to remain in place for long periods at a time, it is advantageous to apply a soft flannel bandage beneath the rubber to prevent undue pressure upon the soft parts, which might produce an irritation of the skin, or even atrophy of the muscles. This is especially necessary when treating aged or thin, flabby individuals. While the bandage is in place, all dressings, splints, etc., are removed so as not to interfere with the hyperemia. If open wounds or sinuses be present, they are simply covered loosely with sterile or antiseptic gauze.

A marked edema results from the hyperemia, extending up to the seat of constriction, and this has to be kept within proper limits. When the application is only for short periods of a few hours each day, the edema becomes absorbed spontaneously in the intervals, but under prolonged hyperemia of twenty to twenty-two hours the time for this absorption is very short, and it is often not possible to entirely reduce it between applications. Elevation of the part upon pillows must consequently be performed during the intermissions. Massage of the region subjected to the pressure of the constriction should also be practised in order to guard against pressure atrophy.

In producing hyperemia of the shoulder-joint, head and neck, or testicles, a slight variation in technic, requiring separate description, is necessary.

Head and Neck.—About the neck a special band, as already described, is used. It should be applied about the root of the neck, well below the larynx, with only moderate tension. To obtain the greatest degree of hyperemia with least constriction, small pieces of felt or wadding may be placed under the constricting band on either side of the larynx over the great veins (Fig. 158). If properly applied, such a bandage can be worn with entire comfort. It causes a pronounced edema of the face, particularly about the eyelids. This is no contraindication to its use, however. Care should be taken not to apply the band too tightly—of course it should never strangulate or

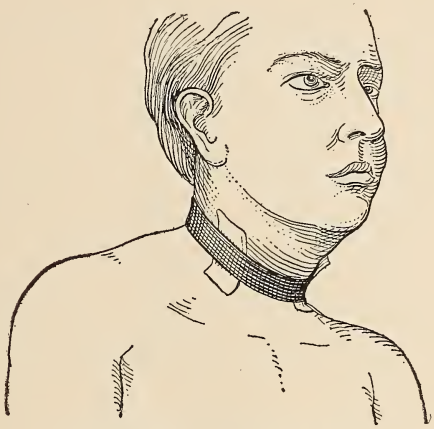


Fig. 158.—Showing the application of the neck band.

interfere with eating or swallowing. If throbbing or a feeling of marked fullness in the head is complained of, the bandage should be removed and reapplied.

Shoulder.—A soft bandage or cravat is placed loosely about the patient's neck and tied. Through the loop a stout piece of rubber tubing about a foot in length is passed as a ligature encircling the shoulder-joint, the middle portion being placed in the axilla and the two ends passing up—one in front and the other behind the joint—to a point above the shoulder, where they are secured by tying or by means of a clamp. A second piece of bandage is secured to the tubing in front of the joint, and passes across the chest, under the opposite axilla, and around the back, where it is secured to the portion of the rubber ring behind the joint (Fig. 159). By adjusting the bandage and regulating the tightness of the rubber tubing, the proper degree of constriction may be obtained.

For anatomical reasons it is not possible to change the location of the constrictor at each application, as is done upon the extremities, and great care and attention is necessary to avoid pressure necrosis. For this reason, it is better to apply the constriction for short periods—say three or four hours—at a time, repeated several times in the twenty-four hours, with correspondingly longer intermissions, in preference to the ten or eleven hour applications.

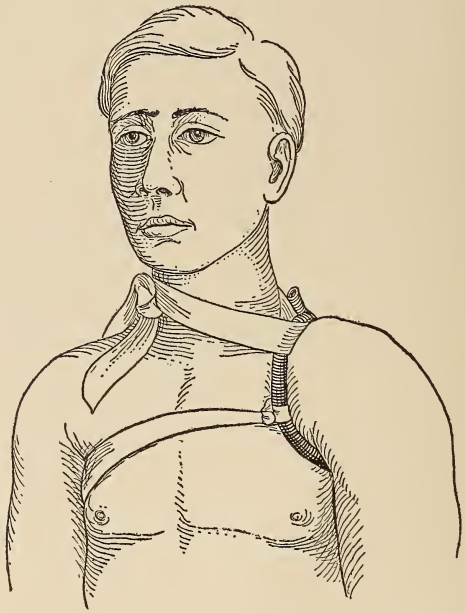


Fig. 159.—Showing the method of obtaining obstructive hyperemia of the shoulder.

Scrotum.—Tubercular and other affections of the testicle may be treated by placing constriction about the root of the scrotum. A small piece of rubber tubing or catheter is wound several times about the base of the scrotum over a layer of cotton and is secured in place by tying with a piece of tape or cord (Fig. 160).

Hyperemia by Means of Suction Cups.—Innumerable forms and styles of suction cups for producing hyperemia in regions not accessible to constriction, as well as large chambers for use upon the extremities and large joints, have been devised. The hyperemia produced by these devices is also a venous one, and is applicable to the same class of cases as is obstructive hyperemia by the bandage. As with the use of the constricting band, exact technic is necessary, and the importance of

obtaining the proper degree of hyperemia cannot be too strongly emphasized.

When one of the cups is applied to a surface and a vacuum produced, the skin and underlying tissues are sucked into the chamber and venous stasis with a consequent increase in the supply of blood in the skin and deeper layers results. Besides producing hyperemia, the mechanical effect of the cupping glass is also of distinct advantage. From an open discharging wound pus and broken-down tissues are rapidly and effectually aspirated. Small sequestra of bone are often quickly

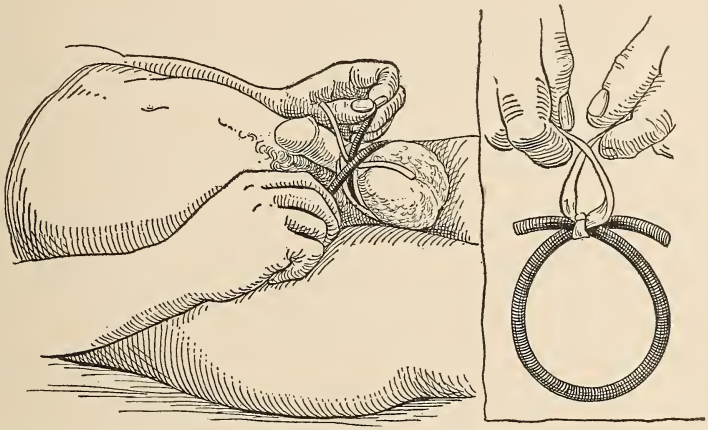


Fig. 160.—Showing the method of producing obstructive hyperemia of the testicles (After Meyer-Schmieden.)

separated and discharged through a sinus under the influence of the hyperemia combined with suction. In the presence of tubercular sinuses, daily applications of the suction cups may be employed in conjunction with the rubber bandage.

Apparatus.—Cups suitable for furuncles, styes, carbuncles, breast abscess, etc., chambers in which are placed the fingers, hands, feet, and large joints, as well as apparatus to be used by the gynecologist, orthopedist, otologist, and other specialists are now manufactured. Types of some of these are shown in the following illustrations (Figs. 161 to 171). If there is considerable discharge, a type of cup shown in Fig. 162 will be found most useful.

In selecting the cup, one should be chosen of sufficiently large diameter to extend well outside the limits of an acute inflammation, and having edges that are thick and smooth, in order to avoid undue pressure upon the skin. In the smaller glasses the suction is obtained by means of small rubber bulbs. With the larger apparatus, stronger

suction is required and a special exhausting pump is necessary (Fig. 172). A further convenience for use with the larger apparatus is a

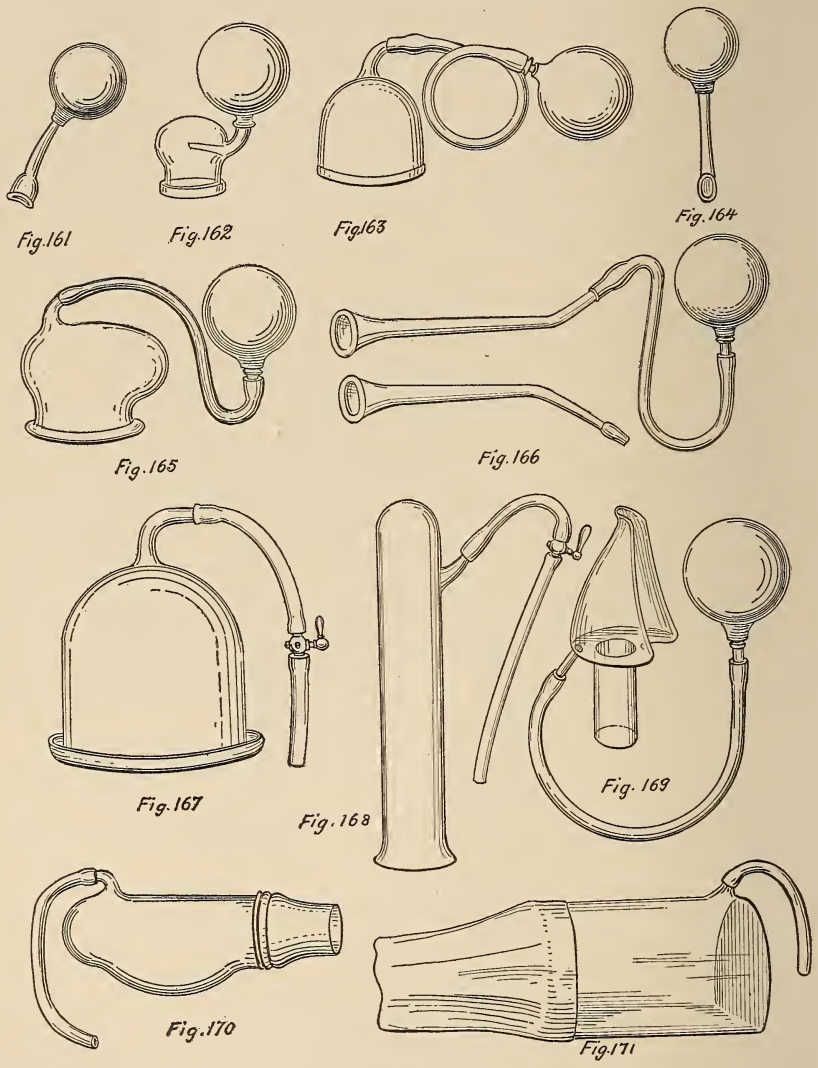


FIG. 161.—Cup for sty. 162. Cup for small abscess. 163. Cup for large abscess. 164. Cup for gums. 165. Cup for carbuncle. 166. Cups for tonsils. 167. Breast cup. 168. Cup for cervix. 169. Cup for nose. 170. Finger suction glass. 171. Hand suction glass.

three-way stopcock inserted between the glass chamber and the pump to allow admission of air when the negative pressure is too great or is to be discontinued.

In addition to these cups and chambers, larger and stronger apparatus for orthopedic use is made for the purpose of bending stiff joints by atmospheric pressure, as shown by Fig. 173. Here the arm is drawn firmly in the glass case as the air is exhausted until the hand meets the obstacle at the lower end of the chamber, when the wrist turns in the direction of least resistance. Other joints of the body can be similarly treated by the use of suitable apparatus. Klapp has also

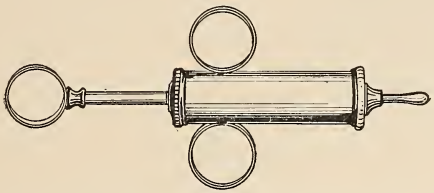


FIG. 172.—Pump for producing a vacuum in the larger cups and suction glasses.

devised metal chambers which are provided with an air pump and a heavy rubber bag for obtaining motion in a partially ankylosed joint. Upon exhausting the air in the apparatus, the rubber bag descends and exerts an evenly regulated pressure upon the part to be treated, as shown in Fig. 174.

Asepsis.—In using suction apparatus in the neighborhood of open wounds or sinuses, strict asepsis should be observed. To avoid all

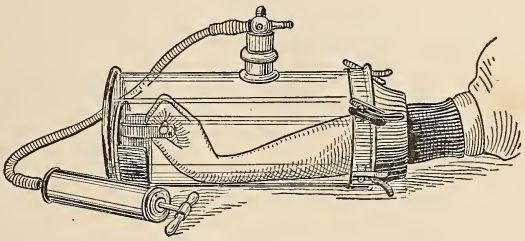


FIG. 173.—Showing the method of obtaining motion in a stiff wrist by the aid of passive hyperemia.

danger of adding to the infection, the cups should be boiled before used. They should be again boiled and well cleaned before being put away.

Duration of Application.—In the use of cups, brief applications often repeated are essential. Accordingly, the cup is applied for five minutes, and is then removed for an interval of two or three minutes, to allow the congestion, edema, and swelling to subside. The cup is then again applied for five minutes, and an entirely fresh supply of

blood with bactericidal properties is brought to the part, the entire treatment consuming about three-quarters of an hour.

Technic.—*Pus, if present, is always to be evacuated by means of a*

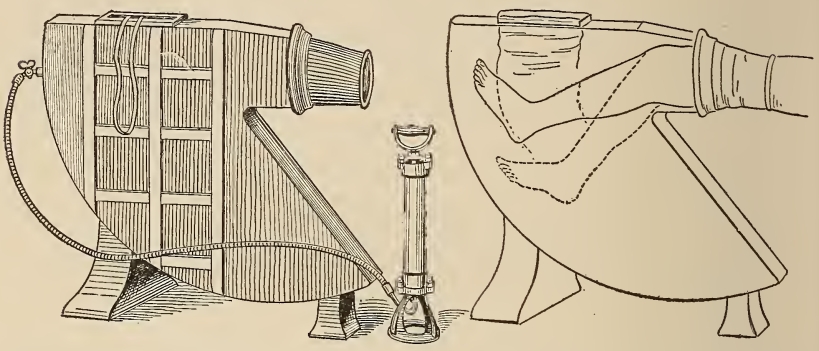


FIG. 174.—Showing the method of obtaining motion in a stiff knee-joint by the aid of passive hyperemia.

small incision or puncture, as previously described, before application of the suction apparatus.

To apply the cup, the edges of the glass are first moistened with vaselin, to avoid leakage of air. Gentle pressure is then made on the

FIG. 175.—Showing a cup applied to a carbuncle.

bulb, and the cup is placed over the affected region, *care being taken to have a cup that is large enough.* Upon releasing the bulb, the air in the cup is partly exhausted, causing the area covered by the cup to be drawn up into it, and, if a proper amount of suction is exerted,

the cup adheres to the surface and a pronounced hyperemia results (Fig. 175). If the application is made over an open infected wound, pus will be drawn out, accompanied by some blood.

The importance of obtaining just the proper degree of hyperemia has already been strongly emphasized and is reiterated here. It should be remembered that the suction is to be only strong enough to slightly decrease the outflowing blood without interfering with the inflow, so that the maximum amount of fighting forces is present at all times during the application. The object is to produce a reddish-blue color of the part. *A distinct blueness or mottling of the skin, or complaint of pain on the part of the patient, indicates too great an amount of suction and requires withdrawal and reapplication of the cup.* Pain should never be produced even in acutely inflamed regions. Sometimes more than one application of the cup is necessary before the proper degree of hyperemia is obtained. With the suction pump, the degree of hyperemia may be more nicely regulated. In this case, the cup with the edges well lubricated is simply applied to the affected region, and the air is slowly exhausted until the proper degree of hyperemia is induced. If the vacuum is produced too rapidly, it is apt to cause some pain. Should it be found that too great a degree of suction is produced, the stopcock may be opened slightly and air allowed to enter the chamber until the desired degree of congestion is attained.

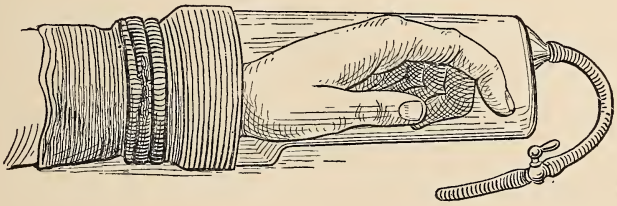


Fig. 176.—Showing a suction glass applied to the hand.

In the use of the large chambers, such as are employed for the treatment of a hand or foot, the member to be subjected to hyperemia is first coated with soap or vaselin so that the rubber sleeve will more easily slip over the skin and at the same time leakage of air may be avoided. The patient then thrusts the arm or foot, whichever it may be, into the apparatus, and the rubber sleeve is bandaged securely about the limb with a rubber bandage (Fig. 176). A partial vacuum is then produced. This causes the part to be drawn more deeply into the apparatus, and some care will be necessary to avoid injuring the limb by suddenly drawing it against the closed end of the apparatus.

A distinct hyperemia of the whole part within the chamber is thus produced, which may be increased or lessened at will by increasing or decreasing the amount of air in the apparatus.

During the intermissions between applications, the congestion may be relieved by elevation if the part be an extremity. Discharge or secretions from open wounds or sinuses should be removed between applications by gentle bathing of the part with warm sterile water or some antiseptic solution. At the end of the treatment the whole part should be gently bathed with warm solution, and all loose exudate or necrotic tissue removed with forceps or sterile gauze. A simple wet dressing is then applied. At the next sitting, if a crust has formed over the opening or sinus, it is gently removed with forceps and the treatment is continued as outlined above.

The suction treatment should be applied daily at first. The amount of pus usually rapidly decreases each day, first becoming less purulent and more serous, until finally only a little serum is withdrawn with each application. The swelling diminishes and the part begins to regain its normal appearance and dimensions. As the suppuration decreases, the treatment may be given every second day, and finally every third day, until recovery is complete.

ACTIVE HYPEREMIA.

The active or arterial form of hyperemia is produced by means of dry hot air. Any portion of the body when subjected to heat becomes red and hyperemic through local increase in the supply of arterial blood. The effects of hot-water bags, hot compresses, hot poultices, hot sand, etc., are all familiar examples of active hyperemia. Hot air in a dry form, however, is the most effective means for inducing such a hyperemia on account of the high degree of heat that can be borne without discomfort. A part may be subjected to the influence of dry hot air of a temperature of 212° F. (100° C.) or more without danger of producing a burn or other injurious effects. On the other hand, moist heat of a temperature of 125° F. (52° C.) is capable of doing distinct harm, and is unbearable even for short periods.

The use of hot air as a therapeutic agent is by no means new, and has been employed with varying degrees of success for ages, but the methods of application were crude and often unsatisfactory. Improvements in the modern baking apparatus have placed this method upon a firm basis, and properly applied in certain cases active hyperemia becomes a therapeutic agent of distinct value.

Indications.—Active hyperemia has a solvent and absorbent action upon exudates, infiltrations, adhesions, etc., and a marked analgesic effect, causing a sensitive part to become less so or to be entirely relieved soon after the application is begun. It thus acts favorably in chronic rheumatism, chronic arthritis, chronic synovitis, and arthritis deformans. It aids greatly in promoting the absorption of edemas and of effusions of blood into the soft parts, and in synovial sacs—as in traumatic synovitis. Other affections in which active hyperemia has given good results are neuralgia, sciatica, neuritis, lumbago, gout, varicose veins, varicose ulcers, etc.

In fractures near a joint with painful involvement of the joint itself, it is of great value in reducing the edema and at the same time hastening the repair, thus increasing the chances of obtaining a more useful limb through the ability to perform early passive motion. In a Colles' fracture, for example, the bones should be properly reduced and within a few days the part should be daily subjected to the influence of heat. After ten days the splint may be discarded entirely, unless there seems a likelihood that the deformity will recur, and the hot-air treatment is daily continued, with the addition of both active and passive motion. In the case of a fracture of the malleolus, much the same line of treatment may be pursued. A plaster splint is applied and worn for ten days. This is then cut down and daily applications of hot air instituted. In the intervals, the splint is reapplied and worn, held in place by means of bandages.

While active hyperemia is of distinct therapeutic value, it should not be employed to the exclusion of other means of treatment. Internal medication should always be carried out when the condition is such that it seems indicated, and the hot-air treatment used as an adjunct. In affections of the joints, neuralgias, etc., massage should form an important part of the treatment. Too much stress cannot be laid on the value of massage when judiciously used in the appropriate class of cases.

Apparatus.—Active hyperemia may be induced either by the use of hot-air boxes or hot-air douches. There are many makes of hot-air boxes on the market. The simplest are made of cotton-wood carefully fitted together and covered with cloth to prevent any leakage of air. They are provided with a lid and have openings at one or both ends for receiving a limb. These openings are lined with cuffs of felt to avoid any danger of burning the skin, and are provided with straps so that the cuffs may be securely fastened to a limb. Openings for hot air are provided on both sides of the box, the one not in use being shut by

a slide. Into one of these a chimney is fitted through which the hot air is conducted from the heating apparatus. The heat is supplied by an alcohol lamp or a gas burner secured to a bracket so that the lamp may be raised or lowered at will. The lids have one or more openings for ventilation of the apparatus. The air is thus constantly in motion, which is important in order to permit evaporation of the perspiration upon the part and to maintain the dryness of the air. A thermometer is also provided with each box for indicating the temperature. Such boxes are made to fit various parts of the body, as the arm, hand, shoulder, foot, knee, hips, etc.

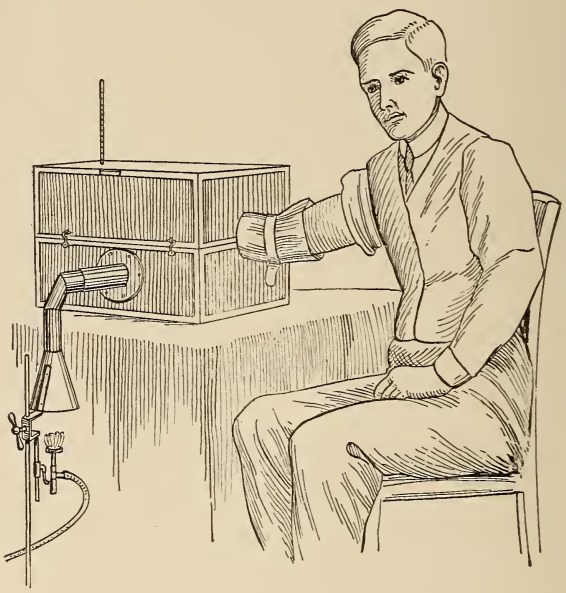


Fig. 177.—Apparatus for applying active hyperemia to the hand and wrist and the method of its application.

Hot-air douches may also be obtained for use over small areas, as along the course of a nerve, about the ear, etc. The douche consists simply of a long metal movable chimney, underneath which is the lamp or gas burner (Fig. 178).

Temperature.—The degree of heat to which the part is subjected may vary from 150° F. to 212° F. (66° C. to 100° C.) or even higher. The temperature must never be high enough, however, to cause discomfort, and the patient's feelings should be the guide. It should be remembered that the prolonged application of a very high degree of heat lowers the sensibility of a part, and great care must be taken not

to burn the patient; the same caution must be observed when applying active hyperemia to tissues with lowered resistance. A moderate temperature should be employed at the start, and this should be increased gradually as tolerance is attained. The temperature is regulated by raising the lamp nearer the box or moving it farther away, and also by the size of the flame.

Duration of Applications.—The heat should be applied from half an hour to an hour daily, or on alternate days. In exceptionally stubborn cases it may be applied for the same length of time twice daily.

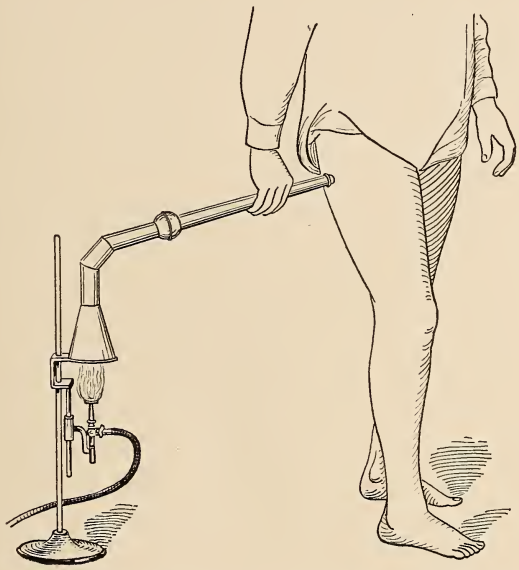


Fig. 178.—The hot-air douche being applied in sciatica. (The nozzel of the apparatus should be shown directed more to the posterior surface of the limb.)

Technic.—The patient assumes a comfortable attitude, either seated or lying down, with the apparatus close at hand. The part to be baked is then placed in the box and the lid is closed. The lighted lamp is placed under the funnel and the temperature is gradually raised until a degree of heat is attained that can be comfortably borne by the patient. The vent in the top of the apparatus should always be open when it is in use, in order to obtain the necessary draught for the flame and proper ventilation of the apparatus. When the desired degree of temperature has been reached, it should be maintained from half an hour to an hour. The light is then extinguished and the temperature is allowed to slowly fall before the member is removed. A sudden

change of temperature, such as would be occasioned by immediately removing the part to the outside atmosphere, is to be avoided. The part, when removed from the baking apparatus, is hot and hyperemic and remains so for some little time. Immediately following the treatment, gentle massage and passive motion, if indicated, should be practised.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE COLLECTION AND PRESERVATION OF PATHOLOGICAL MATERIAL.

With the present-day refinements of laboratory methods, the aid furnished by an examination of discharges, blood, urine, sputum, etc., is of great importance, and often without information so obtained a correct diagnosis is impossible. It is not within the scope of this work to enter into the details of laboratory methods—these may be found in works devoted to the subject—but it is the writer's purpose in this section to give brief instructions as to the methods of collecting material and the preparation of specimens for subsequent pathological examination. This work usually falls to the lot of the practitioner or surgeon himself, and often, through faulty technic in the inoculation of a culture, in the preparation of slides, or in the collection of discharges, etc., the results of the pathologist's examination are misleading or useless.

In any case where material is sent to a laboratory for examination, each specimen should be clearly labeled with the name of the patient, or by a distinguishing number, with the clinical diagnosis, and a short clinical history of the case, together with a statement of from what part of the body or from what organ the growth, discharge, or whatever it may be, was obtained, should accompany the specimen. If chemicals have been employed for preserving the specimen, this should also be stated on the slip sent to the pathologist.

METHOD OF MAKING A SMEAR PREPARATION FOR MICROSCOPICAL EXAMINATION.

Equipment.—A number of clean glass slides, sterile swabs, and suitable specula for exposing to view, if necessary, deep-seated regions from which the discharge may originate, will be required.

The slides should be absolutely clean and free from grease. Unless the slides are very dirty, the following method of cleansing the glass will suffice: First wash off the slide with soap and water, then wipe with alcohol and ether and rub dry with an old linen or silk cloth; finally pass the slide through an alcohol flame. When once cleansed, care should be taken that the surface of the slide does not come into

contact with the skin, as, if it does, a thin film of grease will be left upon the glass.

The swabs consist of a steel wire or applicator about one extremity of which some cotton is wound. They may be obtained sterilized and ready for use, or may be easily extemporized as follows: A test-tube

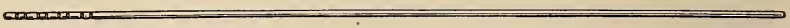


Fig. 179.—Roughened wire for making a swab.

and a piece of stiff wire, of a length somewhat longer than that of the tube, are obtained. One end of the wire is first roughened with a file (Fig. 179) and is then tightly wrapped with a small roll of cotton (Fig. 180). The swab is then loosely laid in the test-tube and the mouth of the tube is plugged with sterile cotton (Fig. 181), and the

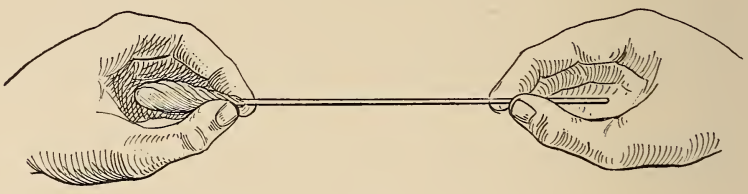


Fig. 180.—Showing the method of wrapping cotton on the end of a wire.

whole is sterilized by dry heat. A supply of swabs may be prepared in this way and be kept ready for use almost indefinitely.

Technic.—The slides are arranged upon a towel and the tubes containing the sterile swabs are placed near at hand. With the seat of the disease well exposed, the swab is removed from the glass container

Fig. 181.—Sterile swab in a glass test-tube.

and dipped into the pus or the secretion, care being taken that it touches nothing but the material from which the specimen is to be obtained. The swab is then rubbed over the surface of one of the glass slides so as to spread the material in a thin transparent film (Fig. 182). At least two smears should be made from each locality, and each slide should be labeled with a distinguishing number. The slides are allowed to

dry and are then piled up and secured one upon another, but with their surfaces separated by matches or toothpicks, as shown in Fig. 183.

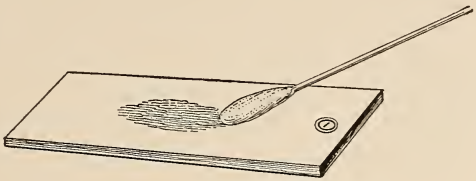


FIG. 182.—Method of making a smear.

From the Mouth and Pharynx.—Equipment.—Sterile swabs, glass slides, and a tongue depressor will be required (Fig. 184).

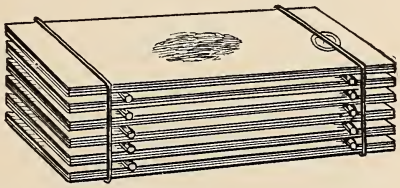


FIG. 183.—Glass slides separated by match sticks and held together with rubber bands ready for shipment to the laboratory. (Ashton.)

Technic.—It should be seen that no antiseptic mouth washes or gargles have been used for at least two hours previous to the time the

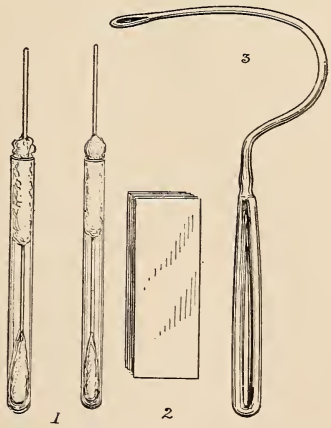


FIG. 184.—Instruments for taking a smear from the pharynx. 1, Sterile swabs; 2, glass slides; 3, tongue depressor.

smear is made. The patient is seated in a good light, with his mouth widely opened, and the tongue controlled by the tongue depressor held

in the operator's left hand, so that a good view of the diseased area may be obtained. The sterile swab is then removed from its container, taken in the right hand, and is passed into the mouth, the operator being careful not to allow it to come in contact with the lips or tongue. When in contact with the area from which the material is to be obtained, the swab should be rotated about so as to bring as much of its surface in contact with the secretions as possible (Fig. 185). In removing the swab the same care against contamination from contact with the tongue, etc., should be observed. A thin smear is then

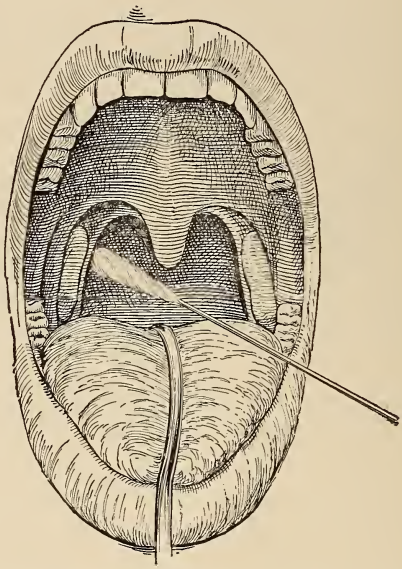


Fig. 185.—Showing the method of taking a smear from the pharynx.

made upon a slide in the manner described above, and the swab is returned to its container for future inoculation of culture tubes if necessary.

From the Nose.—Equipment.—Swabs, slides, a nasal speculum, a head mirror, and an angular pipette (Fig. 186) will be required.

Technic.—Ordinarily, for microscopical examination, a smear made in the usual way from secretions blown from the nose into a clean handkerchief is sufficient. If, however, it is desired to obtain a smear from any one locality, the secretion should be first removed by means of a pipette (page 214), and from this the smear is made.

From the Eyes.—Equipment.—Slides, a sterile swab, a platinum needle, and an alcohol lamp (Fig. 187) will be necessary.

Technic.—There should be no preliminary cleansing of the eyes. The platinum needle is first sterilized by passing it through the flame, and when it has cooled the lids are separated, the loop is brought into

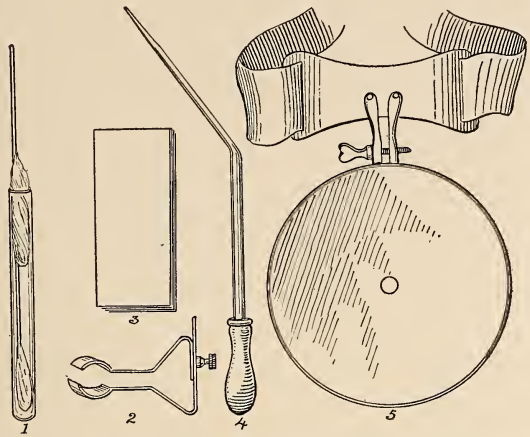


Fig. 186.—Instruments for taking a smear from the nose.
1, Sterile swab; 2, nasal speculum; 3, glass slides; 4, angular pipette; 5, head mirror.

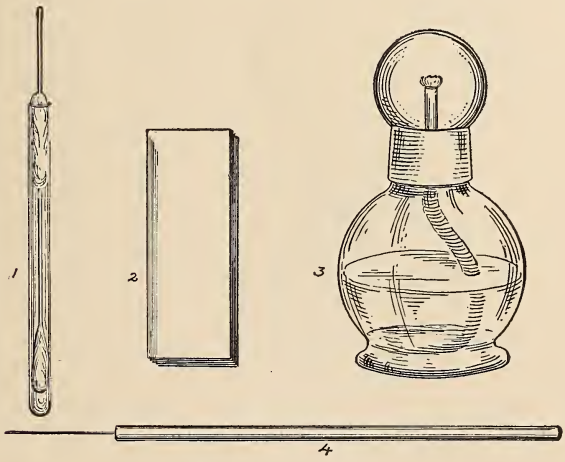


Fig. 187.—Instruments for taking a smear from the eyes.
1, Sterile swab; 2, glass slides; 3, alcohol lamp; 4, platinum needle.

contact with the pus and some of it is transferred to a slide. A smear is then made by means of the swab.

From the Urethra.—Equipment.—Slides and sterile swabs (Fig. 188) should be provided.

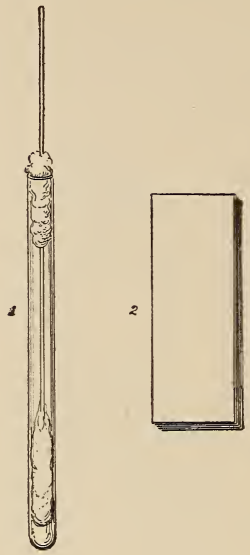


FIG. 188.—Instruments for taking a smear from the urethra. 1, Sterile swab; 2, slides.

FIG. 189.—Forcing the discharge out of the urethra by pressure against the canal with the tip of the finger in the vagina. (Ashton.)

Technic.—In a male, the meatus should be cleansed, and a drop of pus is expressed by stripping the urethra with the finger from behind forward. The swab is then dipped in the pus and a thin smear is made upon a slide in the usual way.

In the female, the labia are held apart by an assistant, the index finger is inserted in the vagina, and the urethra is stripped from behind forward (Fig. 189). The swab is then brought into contact with the drop of pus that is thus expressed, and a smear is made from it in the usual way.

From the Vagina.—Equipment.—Swabs, slides, and a vaginal speculum (Fig. 190) are needed.

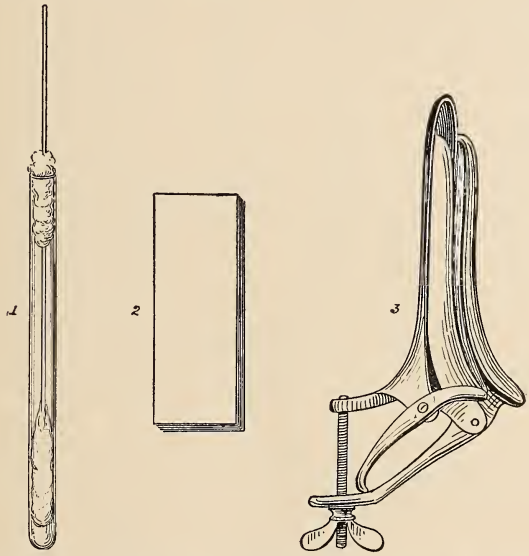


Fig. 190.—Instruments for taking a smear from the vagina.
1, Sterile swab; 2, glass slides; 3, vaginal speculum.

Technic.—The labia are separated and the speculum is introduced so as to obtain a good view of the parts. The swab is then introduced without touching the vulva and is rubbed in the discharge, mucous patch, or whatever it may be. A smear is then made from the material thus obtained.

From the Cervix.—Equipment.—A long swab, a speculum, two tenacula, a sponge holder, and glass slides (Fig. 191) should be provided.

Technic.—The speculum is introduced so that the cervix is well exposed to view, and, by means of a tenaculum placed in each lip, the cervix is drawn as far down as possible. The swab is then passed into

the cervical canal (Fig. 192), but care is taken that it does not enter the uterus for fear of carrying infection to what may be a healthy organ

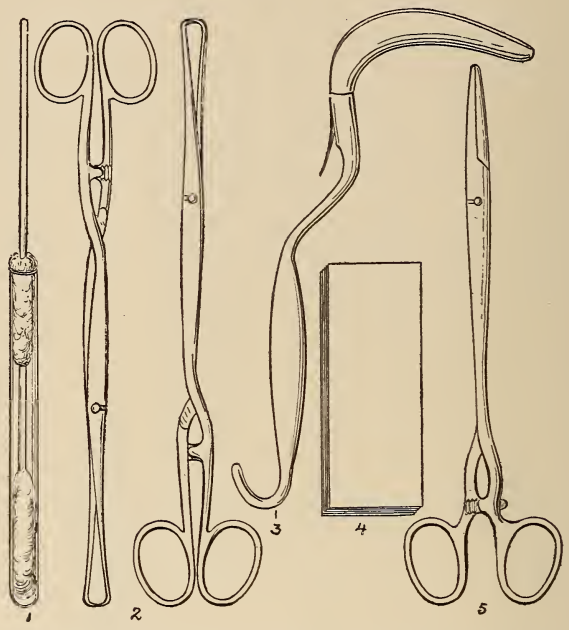


FIG. 191.—Instruments for taking a smear from the uterus.
1, Sterile swab; 2, tenacula; 3, Simon's speculum; 4, glass slides; 5, sponge holder.

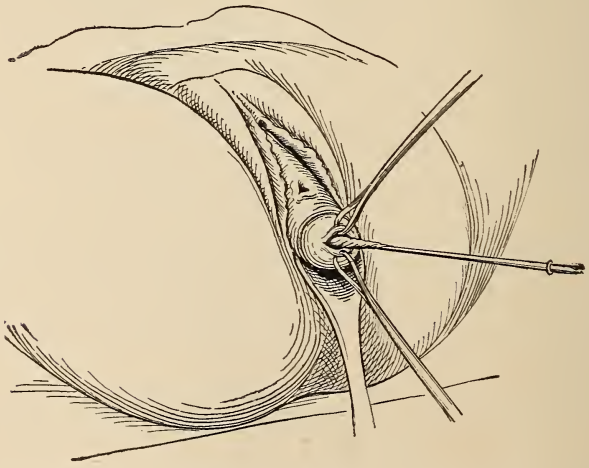


FIG. 192.—Method of collecting the secretions from the uterus. (Ashton.)

from a diseased cervix. The swab is then withdrawn, and a smear is made in the usual way.

METHOD OF INOCULATING CULTURE TUBES.

Equipment.—Culture tubes, sterile swabs, platinum needles, thumb forceps, and an alcohol lamp (Fig. 193) will be required.

A variety of media are employed for the growth of bacteria, such as broth, agar-agar, gelatin, and blood serum, according to the kind of bacteria to be cultivated. The culture media are sold in sterile test-

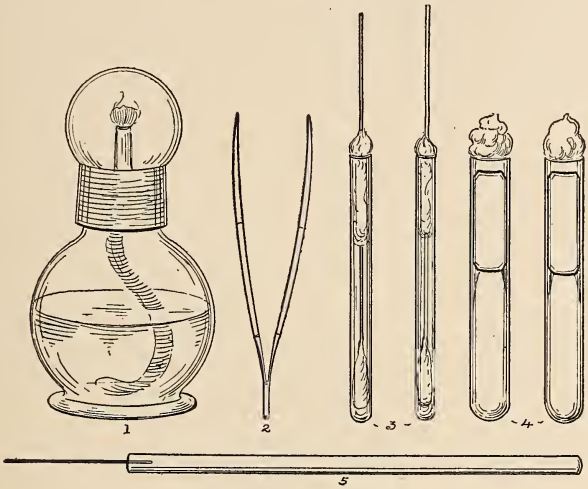


FIG. 193.—Instruments for making a culture.
1, Alcohol lamp; 2, thumb forceps; 3, sterile swabs; 4, culture tubes; 5, platinum needle.

tubes, generally plugged with cotton. When they are to be kept for any length of time, the tubes should, in addition, be sealed with rubber caps or oiled paper to prevent their contents from drying out.

The inoculation of the tubes is performed by means of a swab or a platinum needle. The method of making and sterilizing the former

FIG. 194.—Platinum needles.

has been described above. The needle consists of a platinum wire, 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) long, which is inserted into the end of a glass rod 6 to 8 inches (15 to 20 cm.) long, which serves as a handle. The free end of the wire may be made into the form of a loop or it may be simply left straight (Fig. 194), according to whether a streak or a

stab culture is to be made. Before use, the wire should be sterilized by passing it back and forth through a flame for a few seconds.

Technic.—In making a culture the greatest care must be exercised as to the asepsis and the avoidance of contamination. The culture tubes, platinum needles, etc., are arranged upon a towel within easy reach, and the alcohol lamp is lighted. The end of the culture tube containing the cotton plug is first passed through the flame, the cotton being singed so as to destroy any germs that may be deposited upon it (Fig. 195). The culture tube is held between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, with the mouth of the tube pointing downward, if it

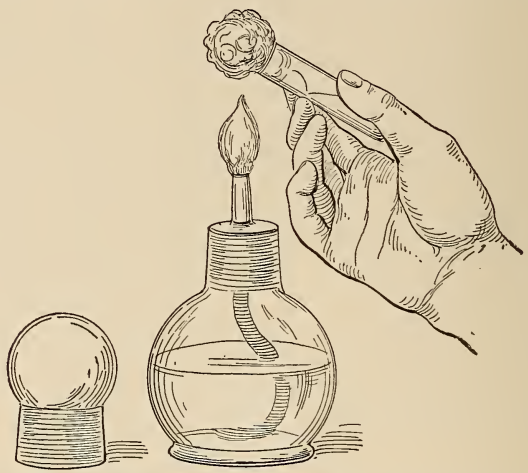


Fig. 195.—Singeing the cotton stopper of a culture tube preparatory to its inoculation.

contains a solid medium, so as to prevent the entrance of any dust. A pair of thumb forceps, after being passed through the flame, are used to remove the cotton plug which is then transferred to the left hand when it is held between the index and second fingers while the culture is being made.

If a streak culture is to be made, a looped platinum needle is sterilized by passing it through the flame, including the portion of glass handle that will enter the tube, and, after permitting it to cool, the tip of the needle is dipped into the secretion or pus—care being taken that it touches nothing else—and is passed to the bottom of the culture tube and then gently withdrawn over the culture medium so as to spread the material in a thin streak upon its sloping surface (Fig. 196). The platinum needle is again passed through the flame and is then laid aside. The tube is finally closed with the cotton plug, first singeing the cotton, however, in the flame while held with the thumb forceps.

When a stab culture is to be made, a straight needle is employed instead of a looped one. The technic is precisely the same as for a streak culture except that the needle is inserted straight into the culture medium and is then withdrawn.

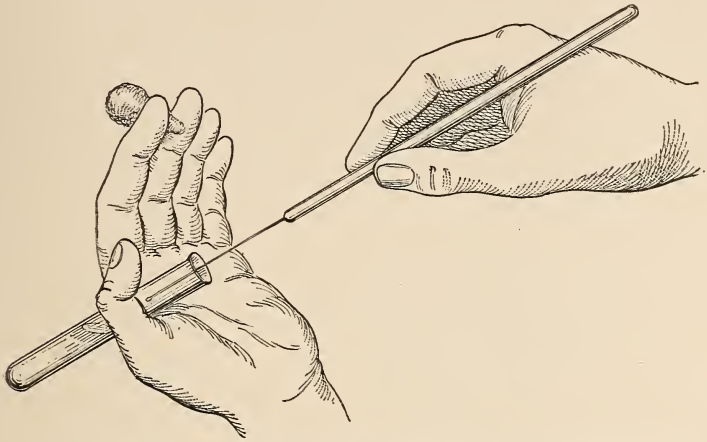


FIG. 196.—Method of making a streak culture. (Levy and Klemperer.)

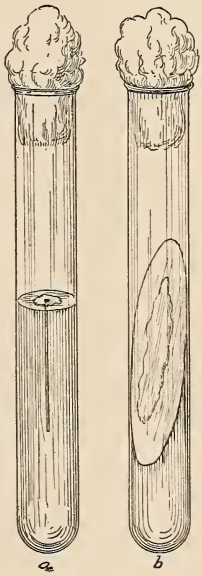


Fig. 197.—Showing "*a*" stab culture, and "*b*" smear culture.

A smear culture with a swab is made as follows: The culture tube and the tube containing the sterile swab are held side by side between the thumb and the index finger of the left hand. The cotton plugs

are removed with sterile forceps, the ends of the tubes and the exposed cotton being first singed, as described above. The cotton plugs are held between the ring and little finger and the ring and middle fingers of the left hand, while, with the right hand, the swab is withdrawn from its tube, dipped in the secretion, and is then inserted into the culture tube and is rubbed thoroughly over the surface of the culture medium (Fig. 198). The swab is then replaced in its container and the cotton plug is singed and reinserted into the mouth of the culture tube.

When a number of cultures are being made, care should be taken to immediately number each tube as it is inoculated.

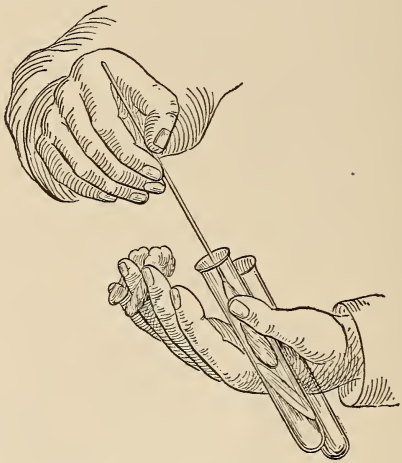


Fig. 198.—The method of making a smear culture.

COLLECTING DISCHARGES AND SECRETIONS FOR BACTERIOLOGICAL EXAMINATION.

When in the absence of culture tubes or for other reasons it is necessary to send fluid material to a laboratory for bacteriological examination, it is best collected in sterile glass pipets which are then hermetically sealed. This insures against leakage as well as any chance of contamination during transportation.

Equipment.—A number of glass pipets, a rubber suction bulb or a suction syringe, an alcohol lamp, scissors, and suitable specula (Fig. 199) will be required.

The pipets may be easily made from thin glass tubing of an external diameter of about 1/4 inch (6 mm.). The center of a piece of such tubing about 6 inches (15 cm.) long is heated over a flame, the tube continually being turned the while, until the glass is softened over

about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) of space (Fig. 200). The tubing is then removed from the flame and while the glass is still soft the two ends are drawn apart so that the softened central portion is stretched out into a capil-

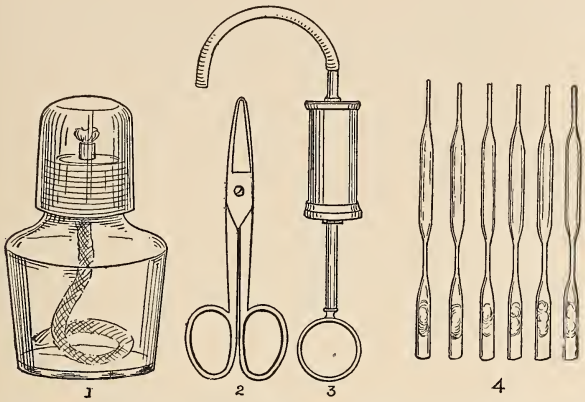


FIG. 199.—Apparatus for collecting discharges for bacteriological examination. 1, Alcohol lamp; 2, scissors; 3, suction syringe; 4, pipets.

lary tube several inches long (Fig. 201). The center of this capillary tube is again heated in the flame until it melts, and, by drawing upon the ends, it parts in the center, leaving two pipets, each with one sealed

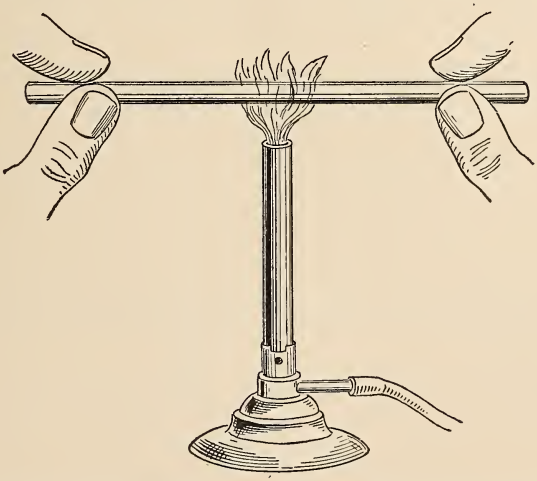


FIG. 200.—Heating the glass tube at its center over a Bunsen flame. (Ashton.)

end (Fig. 202). The center of the thick portions of each of these pipets is then melted in the same way and is drawn out into a capillary tube an inch (2.5 cm.) or more long, so that we have as a result two

pipets each drawn to a point at one end, wide at the other, and between the two ends a bulb separated from the wide end by a capillary constriction (Fig. 203). The pipets are sterilized, after inserting a piece of

FIG. 201.—The glass tube is shown drawn out at its center. (Ashton.)

cotton wool in the wide ends, by passing the whole tube through the flame until it is hot (Fig. 204), but not so hot as to melt the glass or

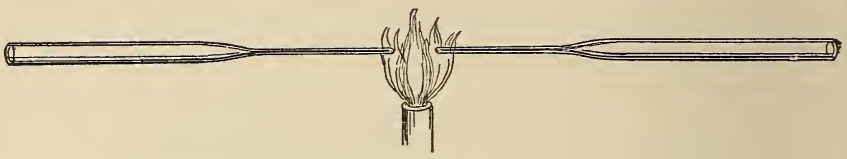


FIG. 202.—Fusing apart the center of the drawn-out portion of the tube. (Ashton.)

burn the cotton plug. Thus sterilized, the pipets may be kept on hand ready for use almost indefinitely.

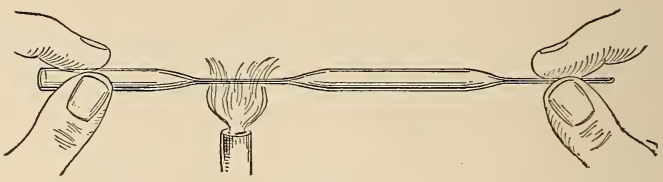


FIG. 203.—Making a bulbous pipet by heating the thick portion and drawing it out to a thin tube. (Ashton.)

The suction for drawing up secretions into the pipets may be furnished by the bulb of a medicine dropper, or by attaching a piece

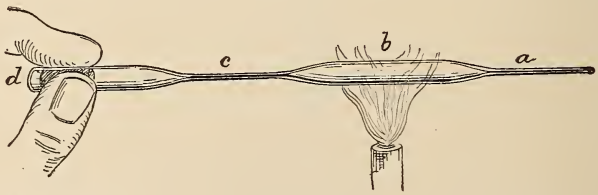


FIG. 204.—Sterilizing the interior of the bulbous portion (*b*) and the slender end (*a*) of the pipet; (*d*) plug of cotton. (Ashton.)

of rubber tubing to the pipet and applying the lips or a small suction syringe to the free end of the rubber tubing.

Technic.—The pipets are arranged near at hand upon a towel, and the alcohol lamp is lighted. The sealed end of the pipet should

be cut off with scissors (Fig. 205) and should be then rounded off in the flame, so as to avoid producing any injury to the tissue (Fig. 206).

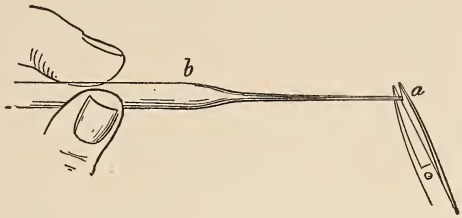


FIG. 205.—Snipping off the fused point of the slender end (*a*) of the pipet with scissors. (Ashton.)

The pipet is then slowly passed through the flame so as to sterilize the entire outer surface of the tube (Fig. 207). When the tube has

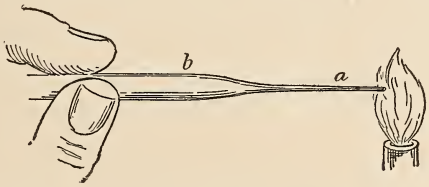


FIG. 206.—Rounding off the rough edges of the glass in the flame. (Ashton.)

cooled, the rubber nipple or tubing is placed upon the large end, and the small end is inserted in the discharge or secretion, which is

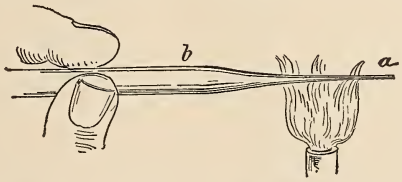


FIG. 207.—Sterilizing the outer surface of the slender end (*a*) of the pipet. (Ashton.)

then drawn up into the pipet by suction. The suction bulb is then removed, and the small end of the pipet is sealed by melting it in

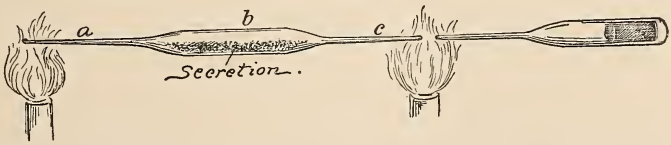


FIG. 208.—Hermetically sealing the secretions in the bulbous portion of the pipet by fusing it in the flame at *a* and *c*. (Ashton.)

the flame. The constricted portion is likewise melted in the flame, and the portion of the pipet containing the cotton wool is removed,

and the remaining end of the pipet is sealed (Fig. 208). In this way the discharge is hermetically sealed in small glass tubes (Fig. 209) and can be sent to any distance for later bacteriological examination. Each tube as it is prepared should be carefully labeled with a distinguishing number.

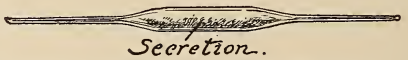


FIG. 209.—Showing the bulbous portion of the pipet sealed and containing the secretion. (Ashton.)

From an Abscess Cavity.—Care must be taken that no antiseptic irrigating fluid is used before the discharge is obtained. A specimen should be obtained free from blood, if possible. To obtain this and to avoid contamination as well, the first portion of the pus should be allowed to escape; the edges of the incision are then separated while the pipet is inserted into the cavity, and a specimen is withdrawn from its depths.

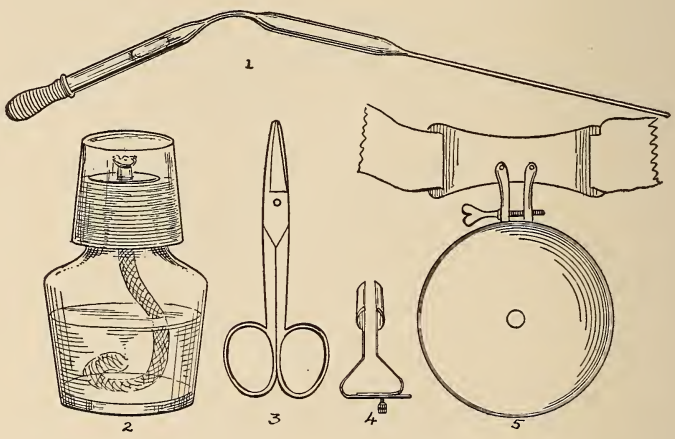


FIG. 210.—Instruments for obtaining secretions from the nose for bacteriological examination.
1, Sterile angular pipet; 2, alcohol lamp; 3, scissors; 4, nasal speculum; 5, head mirror.

From Serous Cavities.—The method of obtaining fluid from serous cavities is described under exploratory punctures (Chapter IX).

From the Nose and Accessory Sinuses.—Equipment.—An angular pipet will be required, as well as an alcohol lamp, scissors, a nasal speculum, suitable illumination, and a head mirror (Fig. 210).

The angular pipette may be made by taking a straight pipet with a long capillary tube, heating the latter at a distance of about 3 inches (7.6 cm.) from its extremity and, when soft, bending it to an angle of 135°. The end should be well smoothed off in a flame before using.

Technic.—The same general principles as outlined above are followed. The patient is seated as for an anterior rhinoscopic examination (page 281), the nasal speculum is introduced, and the light is reflected so that the interior of the nose can be clearly observed. The tip of the pipet is then inserted until it comes in contact with the discharge, care being taken not to have it touch the mucous membrane or the vibrissæ about the vestibule. The point of the instrument is moved about in the secretion while suction is exerted, and some of the discharge will thus be withdrawn. The pipet is then removed, sealed, and properly labeled.

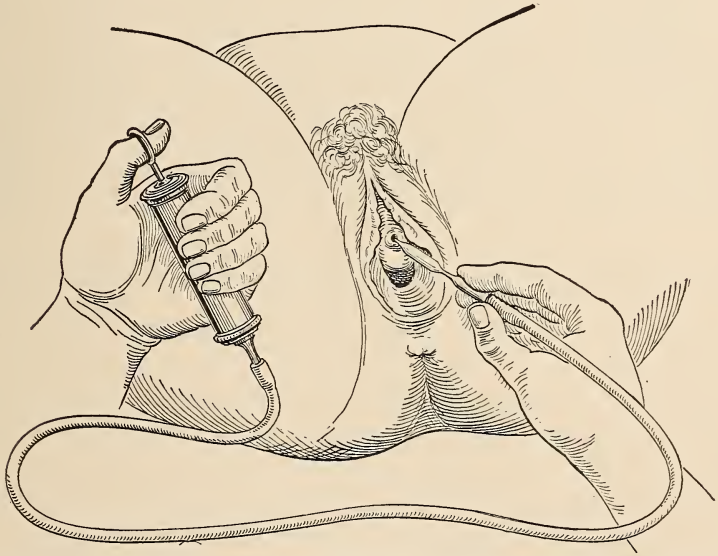


Fig. 211.—Method of sucking secretion into a pipet from the female urethra. (Ashton.)

From the Eyes.—The technic is not different from that already described for collecting discharges from other regions, and no special forms of pipets are necessary. Any preliminary cleansing of the eyes should, of course, be avoided.

From the Urethra.—Equipment.—Pipets and the other apparatus necessary for collecting discharges (see Fig. 199) will be required.

Technic.—The urine should not be voided for several hours prior to obtaining the specimen. The urinary meatus is first exposed, and, after the end of the pipet has been inserted into the canal, the secretion is sucked into the pipet (Fig. 211). When the discharge is scanty, sufficient may be obtained by expressing the pus from the posterior portion of the urethra by drawing the finger along the urethra from behind forward. In the female the same method may be employed with the index finger in the vagina (see Fig. 189). When a specimen has been obtained, the ends of the pipet are sealed and the tube is properly labeled.

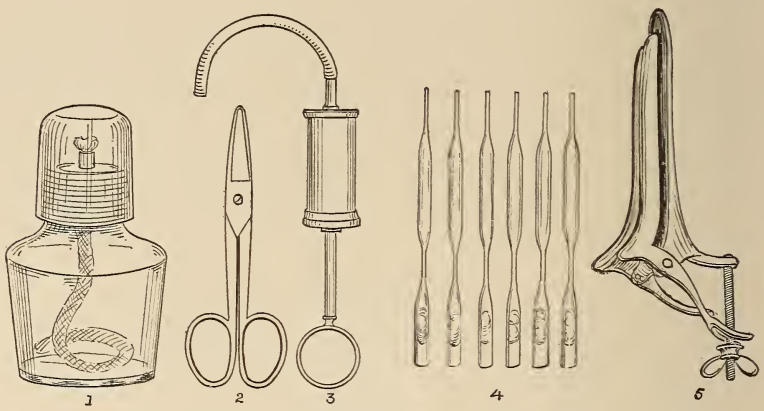


FIG. 212.—Instruments for obtaining secretions from the vagina for bacteriological examination.

1, Alcohol lamp; 2, scissors; 3, suction syringe; 4, sterile pipets; 5, vaginal speculum.

From the Vagina.—Equipment.—Pipets, a suction syringe and rubber tubing, scissors, an alcohol lamp, and a vaginal speculum (Fig. 212) will be required.

Technic.—The labia are separated and the speculum is introduced into the vagina, so that the posterior cul-de-sac is exposed to view. The distal end of the pipet is then carefully introduced into the discharge, and sufficient secretion for the purposes of the examination is withdrawn by means of suction. The pipet is then removed, both ends are sealed, and the specimen is properly labeled.

From the Uterus.—Equipment.—Pipets, a suction syringe and rubber tubing, scissors, an alcohol lamp, vaginal specula, two tenacula, and sponge holders (Fig. 213) will be required.

Technic.—The speculum is introduced into the vagina and the cervix is well exposed to view. Any vaginal secretions are removed by

means of sponges on holders, tenacula are inserted in the anterior and posterior lips of the cervix, and the latter is drawn well down. The pipet is then inserted into the cervical canal, care being taken not to push it into the uterus, and the secretion is sucked into it. It is then withdrawn, and both ends are sealed.

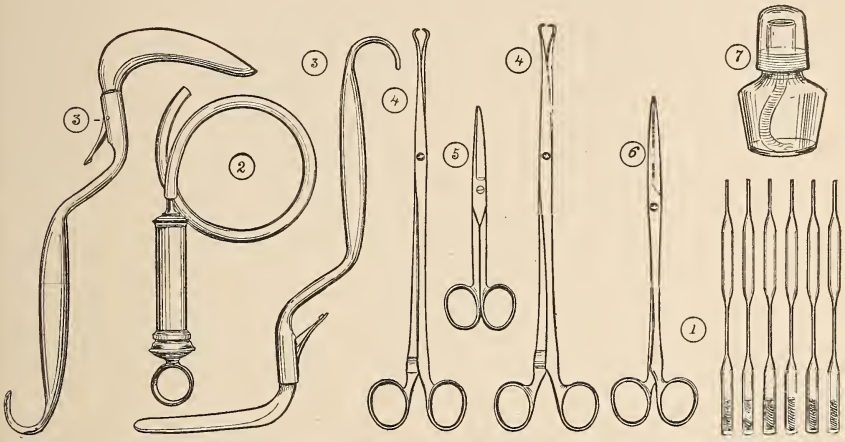


FIG. 213.—Instruments for collecting discharges from the uterus for bacteriological examination. (Ashton.)
1, Pipets; 2, suction syringe; 3, Simon's speculum; 4, tenacula; 5, scissors; 6, sponge holder; 7, alcohol lamp.

COLLECTION OF BLOOD FOR MICROSCOPICAL EXAMINATION.

Blood may be examined microscopically either from a fresh specimen or from a dried smear. The former procedure is suitable only when the blood can be examined promptly—say within half an hour. A smear is made when the morphology of the cellular elements is to be studied after being properly stained.

Equipment.—Slides, cover-glasses, an alcohol lamp, thumb forceps, and a spear-pointed needle or a lancet (Fig. 214) are necessary. The cover-glasses and slides should be of the best material. The former should be very thin and about 7/8 inch (22 mm.) square. Both should be absolutely clean and free from grease; the cleansing may be performed after the method described on page 199.

Location of Puncture.—The blood may be withdrawn from a prick in the lobe of the ear or in the tip of the finger. The former region is preferable, however, as it is not so sensitive as the finger, and it is usually cleaner, so that the chances of infection are less. Furthermore, when the puncture is made in the ear, the operation is removed

from the view of the patient, which is an important consideration in the case of children and nervous individuals.

Asepsis.—The site of puncture should be cleaned by first rubbing

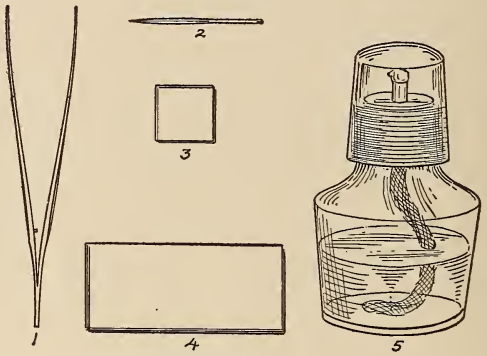


FIG. 214.—Instruments for collecting blood for microscopical examination. 1, Thumb forceps; 2, spear-pointed needle; 3, cover-glasses; 4, glass slides; 5, alcohol lamp.

it with a wipe wet with alcohol, and then drying it with ether. The needle or lancet is sterilized by boiling or passing it through a flame.

Technic.—1. *Fresh Specimen.*—Care should be taken to avoid chilling the specimen and exposing it to the air any longer than is

FIG. 215.—Making a fresh blood smear. First step, puncturing the ear.

necessary; accordingly, everything should be in readiness for the examination. The slide is warmed over the alcohol lamp or by vigorously rubbing it with a piece of linen, and is then laid on a sterile towel.

The cover-glass is likewise warmed and placed near at hand. The lobe of the ear is grasped between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand and with a quick stab the lowest portion of the lobe is punctured (Fig. 215). The blood should be allowed to flow *without pressure or rubbing*, as these produce a hyperemia and the constituents

FIG. 216.—Making a fresh blood smear. Second step, collecting the drop on a cover-glass.

of the blood may be changed in character or the blood cells may be deformed. The first drop is wiped away and a second drop is allowed to flow. The cover-glass is then taken up in the thumb forceps and is applied by its under surface to the apex of the drop (Fig. 216), but is not allowed to touch the skin. The cover-glass is then gently

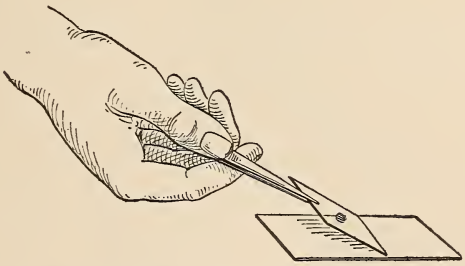


FIG. 217.—Making a fresh blood smear. Third step, placing the cover-glass holding the blood drop on a slide.

lowered upon the warmed slide (Fig. 217) and the drop of blood is thus caused to spread out in a thin circular layer between the slide and the cover-glass. If the drop is not too large, the blood will not spread beyond the margins of the cover-glass. The cover-glass should not be pressed down upon the slide, as this will injure the corpuscles.

2. *Dried Specimen.*—A puncture is made in the lobe of the ear in the manner described above, and, after the first drop of blood has been wiped away, the second drop is received upon a slide near one end. As quickly as possible the edge of another slide is dipped into the

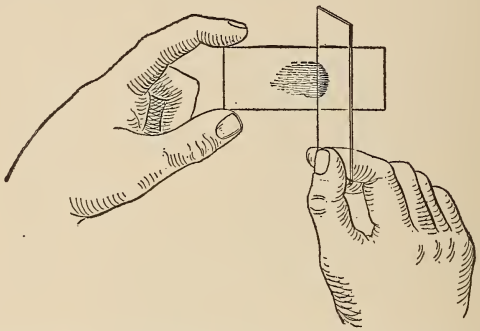


FIG. 218.—Method of making a dry blood smear with two slides.

drop thus collected and is drawn along the surface of the first slide, spreading out the drop in a broad thin smear (Fig. 218). To be of any value the smear must be spread out evenly and thinly.

A second method is to employ cover-glasses. Two cover-glasses are thoroughly cleansed and are placed conveniently at hand. The

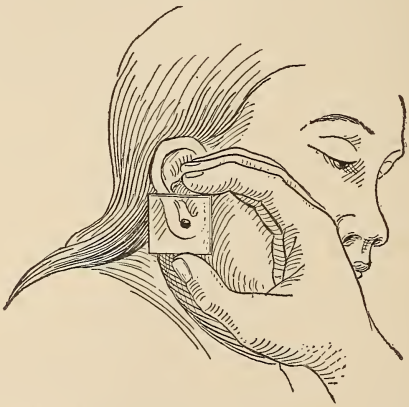


FIG. 219.—Making a dry blood smear with two cover-glasses. Second step, collecting the drop on a cover-glass.

ear is punctured in the way described above (see Fig. 215), and the first drop of blood is removed. One cover-glass is then held by its sides between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, while the second one is grasped by its sharp angles in the fingers of the left hand.

The under surface of this first cover is then applied to the apex of the drop of blood (Fig. 219), and is quickly placed upon the second glass,

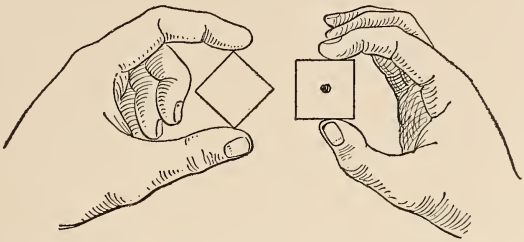


FIG. 220.—Making a dry blood smear with two cover-glasses. Third step, the method of holding the two cover-glasses preparatory to placing the one holding the drop upon the second one.

with the angles of the two not coinciding (Fig. 220), so that the drop spreads out by its own weight in a thin film between the two covers

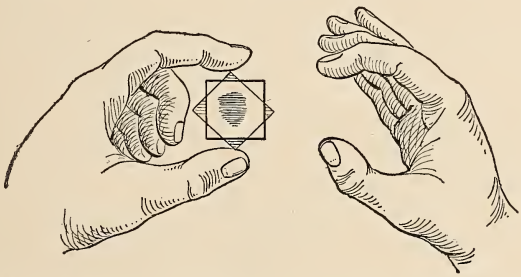


FIG. 221.—Making a dry blood smear with two cover-glasses. Fourth step, showing the two covers with their surfaces in contact and the drop of blood spread out in a thin layer between them.

(Fig. 221). If too large a drop is taken the upper cover will simply float around upon the lower. The upper cover is finally seized between

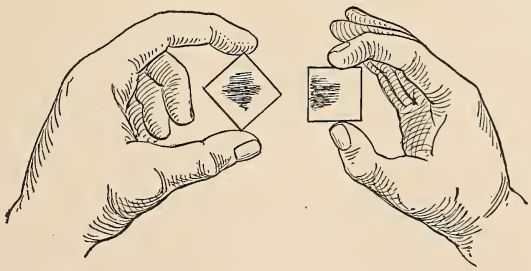


FIG. 222.—Making a dry blood smear with two cover-glasses. Fifth step, showing the method of drawing the two covers apart.

the thumb and forefinger of the right hand and, still holding the lower cover in the left hand, the two covers are slid apart in the same plane

(Fig. 222). Unless too small a drop has been taken, this is readily accomplished. The films thus obtained are then allowed to dry, and later they may be fixed and properly stained. It is always well to make three or four of these smears, as some of the films may be poorly spread, or may be broken in handling.

THE COLLECTION OF BLOOD FOR BACTERIOLOGICAL EXAMINATION.

The best method of securing blood for culture is by a venous puncture. The ordinary method of obtaining blood through a prick of the ear or of the finger is worthless for bacteriological purposes on account of the small amount of blood obtained and the chances of contamination, especially from the skin. If properly performed, a venous puncture is harmless and gives the patient but little discomfort.

Equipment.—A glass syringe with a capacity of 2 3/4 drams (about 10 c.c.), a moderately large needle with a sharp point, broth and agar-agar culture tube, and a bandage (Fig. 223) are necessary.

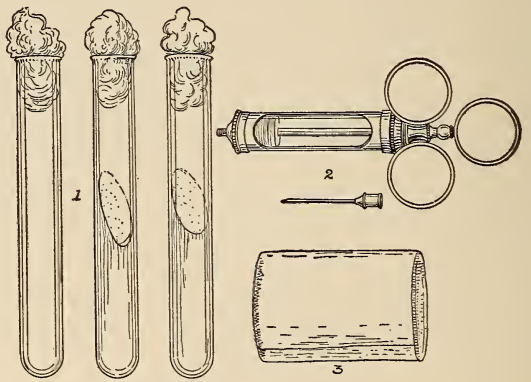


Fig. 223.—Apparatus for collecting blood for bacteriological examination.

Site of Puncture.—The median cephalic or median basilic vein is usually chosen (see Fig. 100), but, if these are not available, the internal saphenous vein in the leg or any of the smaller veins about the wrist may be made use of.

Asepsis.—The skin at the site of puncture should be well scrubbed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The hands of the operator are as carefully sterilized as for any operation, and the instruments are boiled.

Anesthesia.—In ordinary cases anesthesia is unnecessary. If it is necessary to expose the vein by an incision, as in the case of an

individual with much fat or whose tissues are edematous, infiltration with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain is employed.

Technic.—A bandage is wound about the arm between the seat of puncture and the heart with sufficient tension to produce a slight venous stasis and cause the veins to stand out prominently, but with not enough compression to cut off the arterial flow. By gently forcing the blood along toward the seat of constriction by means of the forefinger or thumb, the vein may be made to stand out more prominently. In stout persons, however, it may be necessary to expose the vein by an incision.

The needle with the syringe attached is then passed obliquely through the skin into the vein in a direction against the blood current (Fig. 224), and the blood is gently sucked into the syringe by slowly

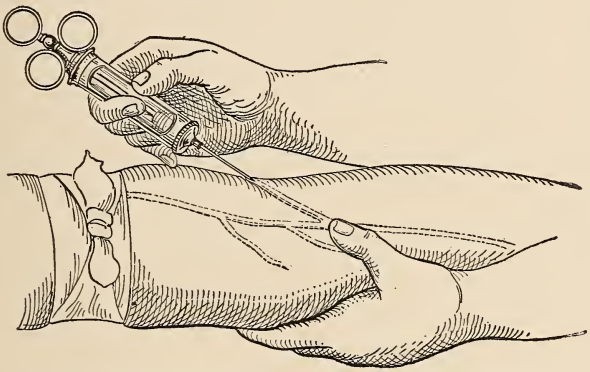


FIG. 224.—Showing the method of making a venous puncture.

withdrawing the piston. If too great an amount of suction is exerted the wall of the vein will be forcibly collapsed and will act as a valve against the further withdrawal of blood. About 1 1/2 drams (5 c.c.) of blood may be taken from a child, and about 2 3/4 drams (10 c.c.) from an adult. The needle is then withdrawn, the constriction being first removed from the arm to avoid subcutaneous hemorrhage from the punctured vein. Moderate pressure should be made over the site of puncture by a piece of gauze held in place by the patient or by an assistant while the culture tubes are being inoculated. This inoculation should be done immediately and before the blood has time to clot in the syringe.

During the inoculation of the tubes the greatest care should be taken to avoid contamination; the needle is removed from the syringe, as it is very apt to be contaminated with staphylococci from the skin, no matter how carefully the sterilization may have been carried out,

and the inoculation is made through the sterile end of the syringe. In doing this, the same technic described on page 207 should be followed. Inoculations are usually made with 16♏ (1 c.c.) of blood into definite quantities of media. At the completion of the operation the seat of puncture is sealed with collodion.

THE COLLECTION OF SPUTUM.

Sputum should be collected in absolutely clean wide-mouth ounce glass bottles, provided with a water-tight cork so that there can be no leakage (Fig. 225) during transportation. Suitable bottles may be obtained from any laboratory or from most drug stores. The specimen should be obtained from the sputum coughed up early in the morning before any food has been taken, and it should be seen that the material *is coughed up* from the lungs and that it is not simply an accumulation from the mouth and pharynx. As an added precaution against contamination from particles of food, tobacco, vomitus, etc., the mouth and pharynx should first be thoroughly rinsed out. When there is not sufficient sputum from one collection, the whole amount for the day, or for twenty-four hours, should be preserved. The specimen thus collected should be sent to the laboratory promptly, that it may be examined in as fresh a condition as possible.

Fig. 225. Sputum bottle.

With infants and young children it may be next to impossible to obtain sputum in the ordinary way. A method sometimes employed is to pass a stomach tube into the esophagus and then examine the mucus found adhering to the tube upon its withdrawal. Holt advises (*Archives of Internal Medicine*, May 15, 1910) the following method: The child is made to cough by irritating the pharynx with a bit of gauze or cotton held in the jaws of an artery clamp, and any secretion which is brought into view is then secured on this swab.

THE COLLECTION OF URINE.

When a simple chemical examination of urine is called for, it is only necessary to collect the specimen in some perfectly clean receptacle, the first portion as it comes from the meatus being received in another vessel and then rejected; but if a culture is to be made, the urine must be obtained by catheter under rigid asepsis. The catheter must be boiled and the hands of the operator must be sterilized as for

any operation. The meatus and surrounding parts are then washed with an antiseptic solution, and the catheter is gently inserted into the bladder without touching the adjacent parts (see also page 628). The first portion of the urine is to be discarded, and then from 1 1/2 to 2 3/4 drams (about 5 to 10 c.c.) are collected in a sterile test-tube, which is immediately plugged.

When it is desired to obtain a separate specimen from each kidney, the ureters may be catheterized (see page 652) or a urinary separator may be employed (see page 667).

To obtain a twenty-four-hour specimen, as, for example, when it is desired to determine the total daily amount of urine secreted or to estimate the total solids, it is necessary to begin and end with an empty bladder. The patient is therefore instructed to empty the bladder at a certain hour and to discard this specimen. All the urine passed for the following twenty-four hours, including that voided at the end of this period, is saved in a large clean bottle. For cases of incontinence, a retained catheter must be used (see page 637), or else a rubber urinal devised for such cases may be employed.

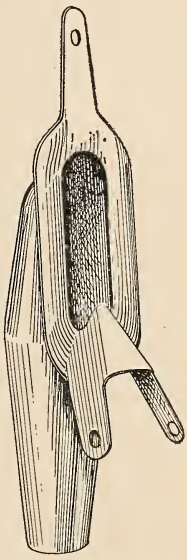


Fig. 226.—Chapin's urine collector.

When considerable time must elapse before a specimen can be examined, some preservative, such as boric acid in the proportion of 5 grains (0.324 gm.) to 1 ounce (30 c.c.), or formalin in the proportion of 1 drop to each 4 ounces (120 c.c.) may be added to the specimen. If cultures or inoculations are to be made, any preservative should be avoided.

In the case of infants there are several methods for collecting urine. With male infants, for an ordinary examination, the specimen may be collected by means of a condom which is secured to the body by adhesive plaster, and into which the penis and scrotum are passed; or a bottle may be employed, in the neck of which the penis is placed. Chapin has devised a urine collector (Fig. 226) that may be employed for both males and females. A method sometimes employed with females is to place absorbent cotton over the vulva, and, after the child has saturated the cotton, to express the urine into a bottle; or the child may simply be placed upon a rubber sheet from which the urine is collected as often as it is voided. If it is necessary to obtain an uncontaminated specimen, catheterization must be resorted to, employing a small catheter (9 to 11 French).

THE COLLECTION OF GASTRIC CONTENTS.

For a microscopical examination of the stomach contents a test meal is not necessary, the vomitus or a portion removed by the stomach tube (see page 442) being all that is required. The specimen should be received in a clean glass receptacle.

For a complete chemical examination and to test the condition of the stomach, the gastric contents an hour after a test-meal will be required (see page 440).

THE COLLECTION OF FECES.

Ordinarily a small amount should be received in a sterilized wide-mouth glass jar and the examination made as soon as possible.

When examining for the ameba, it becomes necessary to collect the stools in a clean *warm* receptacle and to make the examination immediately upon a warmed slide, or else to provide some means for keeping the specimen warm until the examination can be conveniently made.

THE REMOVAL OF A FRAGMENT OF SOLID TISSUE FOR EXAMINATION.

The excision of pieces of tissue for microscopical examination may be required in cases where it seems probable that a tumor is malignant but where the clinical signs and symptoms are not pronounced enough to make a positive diagnosis. The information thus obtained is especially valuable in growths of recent development, as in these the evidence of malignancy is often not apparent from a gross examination.

Instruments.—In ordinary cases there will be required: a scalpel, scissors, a cutaneous punch, artery clamps, plain thumb forceps, mouse-toothed forceps, small sharp retractors, a needle holder, No. 2 catgut sutures, curved needles with cutting-edges, and a wide-mouth clean bottle provided with a water-tight cork and containing a 10 per cent. aqueous solution of formalin (Fig. 227).

For regions which are not readily accessible, as, for example, the female genitals, volsellum forceps and suitable speculæ are necessary.

For collecting material from the interior of the uterus, curettage instruments, etc., will be required (see page 751).

Anesthesia.—As a rule, local anesthesia by infiltration with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain in normal salt solution is sufficient. For skin tumors, freezing with ethyl chlorid usually suffices.

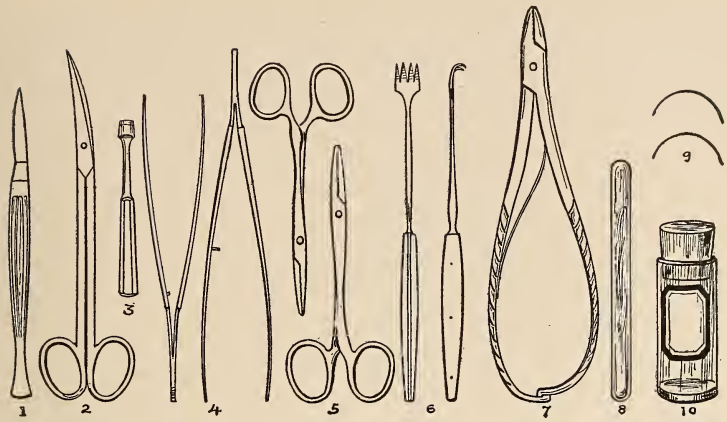


FIG. 227.—Instruments for excising a fragment of solid tissue for examination. 1, Scalpel; 2, curved sharp-pointed scissors; 3, skin punch; 4, thumb forceps; 5, artery clamps; 6, retractors; 7, needle holder; 8, No. 2 catgut; 9, curved cutting-edge needles; 10, specimen bottle.

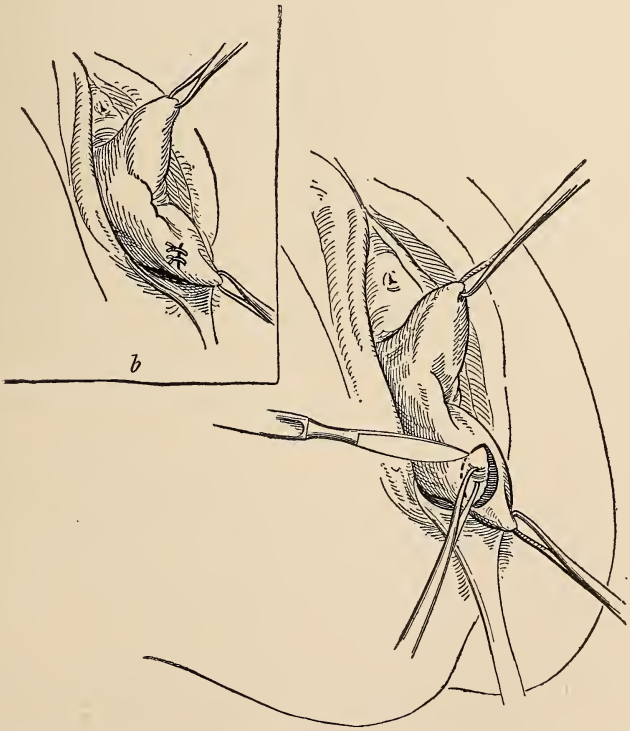


FIG. 228.—Excision of a piece of tissue from the cervix. (Ashton).

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled, the hands of the operator are sterilized, and the site of operation is cleaned as for any operation.

Technic.—The line of proposed incision is first cocainized. Then

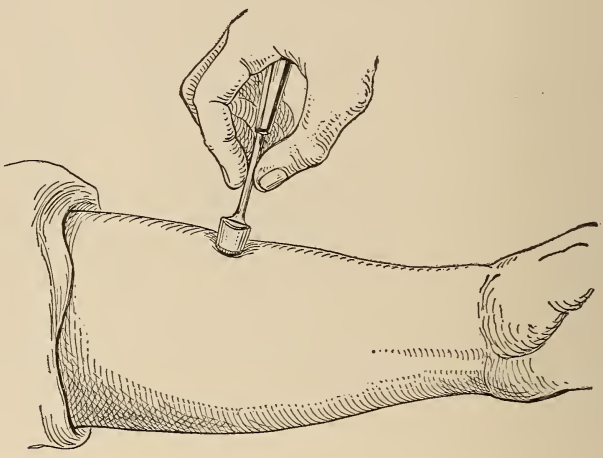


FIG. 229.—Removal of a fragment of a superficial growth with a skin punch.

with the tissues well retracted so as to expose the growth, a wedge-shaped piece of tissue is removed by means of a scalpel from the portion of the growth where the pathological changes are most marked or the tumor is nodular (Fig. 228). The tissue is then transferred to the

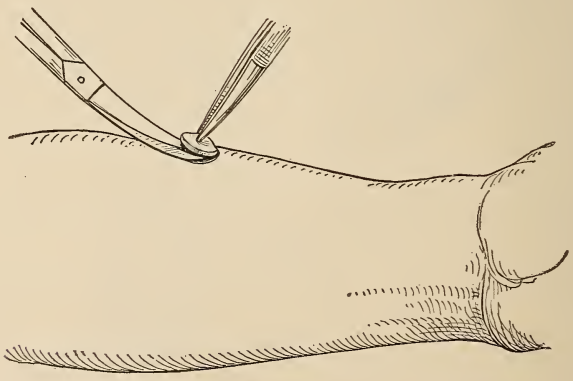


FIG. 230.—Removal of a fragment of a superficial growth with a skin punch. Second step, cutting loose the base of the section.

bottle containing the 10 per cent. formalin solution, and a proper label is applied. Any hemorrhage is then controlled, the incision is closed, and a sterile dressing is finally applied.

A fragment of a very superficial tumor or of a skin growth may be removed by means of a punch if desired. The skin is frozen with ethyl chlorid, and by a rotary motion the punch is made to cut out a circular piece of tissue (Fig. 229). The punch is then removed and the circular core is seized in thumb forceps and is freed from its base by cutting with a pair of curved scissors (Fig. 230). The punch may be employed in the same way, if desired, for removal of deeper seated growths after first exposing the tumor by an incision.

When tissue is removed by curettage for examination, the uterus should be scraped systematically, and, as soon as collected, the fragments thus obtained should be placed in a bottle containing the preserving fluid. The bottle is then carefully labeled. Care should be taken to avoid rough handling of the tissues and to preserve for examination all the fragments removed. For the technic of curettage see page 751.

CHAPTER IX.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURES.

An exploratory puncture consists in the introduction of a hollow needle attached to an aspirating syringe into a diseased region, and a subsequent aspiration. This comparatively simple operation may be performed for the purpose of determining the presence or absence of fluid in any particular area, or to obtain a specimen of fluid for the purpose of determining its character by subsequent examination. In addition, exploratory punctures are made prior to therapeutic punctures to determine the exact location of the fluid to be evacuated. In deeply-seated processes, as suppuration and fluctuating tumors, inaccessible to other means of diagnosis, this method of exploration often gives most valuable information. The liver, the lungs, the pleural and pericardial cavities, the spinal canal, and other organs and regions difficult of access may thus be tapped and explored with comparative safety.

Apparatus.—Aspirating needles and a syringe of appropriate size should be provided. It will be found convenient to have an assortment of needles of different lengths and diameters. They should measure in length 2 1/2 inches (6.3 cm.), 3 inches (7.6 cm.), 3 1/2 inches (8.9 cm.), and 4 inches (10 cm.); and in diameter 1/50 inch (0.5 mm.), 1/25 inch (1 mm.), 1/18 inch (1.5 mm.), and 1/12 inch (2 mm.). For ordinary use the needle should be at least 3 inches (7.6 cm.) long and about 1/25 inch (1 mm.) in diameter, so that it will readily give passage to fluids of heavy consistency.

It is preferable to have a syringe with a capacity of from 1 to 2 drams (3.75 to 7.5 c.c.), through an ordinary hypodermic syringe may be employed if the large needles are made to fit. The syringe should be capable of exerting a strong suction, and the joint between it and the needle should be absolutely air-tight. The best form of syringe consists of a solid glass barrel and a tight-fitting piston provided with an asbestos or rubber packing (Fig. 231). Such a syringe is simple in mechanism, easy to clean, and can be readily sterilized by boiling. If confirmation of the diagnosis of fluid is to be immediately followed by its evacuation, the aspirating apparatus of Potain or Dieulafoy (see

page 256) may be used for the exploration, thus sparing the patient a subsequent operation.

Before making a puncture the syringe should always be tested by withdrawing the piston with the finger held over the end, to see if it will exert proper suction. The syringe should likewise be tested with

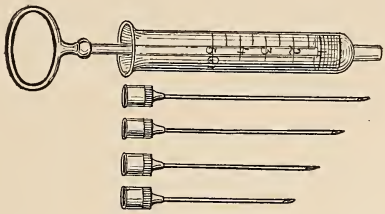


FIG. 231.—Aspirating syringe and needles.

the needle fitted in place. After use, the syringe should be taken apart, and both it and the needle should be thoroughly cleansed. To guard against rusting, the lumen of the needle should be cleansed with alcohol and ether, and a wire of suitable size inserted.

In cases where a complete chemical, microscopical, and bacteriological examination is desired, sterilized test-tubes for collecting

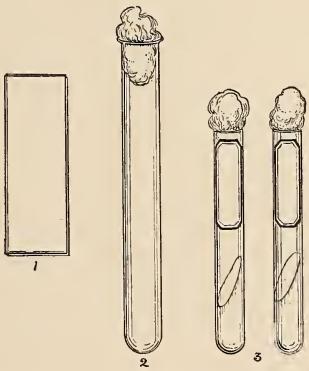


FIG. 232.—Apparatus for making smears and cultures from fluids removed by exploratory puncture.
1, Glass slides; 2, sterile test-tube; 3, culture tubes.

and transporting the material aspirated, glass slides, and agar-agar culture tubes (Fig. 232) should be at hand.

Asepsis.—The strictest regard to asepsis must be observed in making any exploratory puncture, otherwise there is great risk of infection and of converting a simple serous exudate into a purulent one. The site chosen for the puncture should be carefully scrubbed with green

soap and warm water, and then cleansed with alcohol followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The operator's hands should also be thoroughly scrubbed, followed by immersion in an antiseptic solution. The needle and syringe should be boiled.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia by freezing with ethyl chlorid or salt and ice, or infiltrating with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain, will be all that is required. In employing freezing as an anesthetic, if the patient is poorly nourished or the skin is edematous, care should be taken not to freeze the skin too thoroughly, on account of the danger of local gangrene.

Technic.—The needle is introduced into the area chosen for the puncture at right angles to the skin surface, care being taken to enter it away from important vessels or nerves. The needle should be inserted very slowly, with strict attention to the amount of resistance encountered, so that the moment it enters a cavity the fact will be recognized by the operator through the absence of further obstruction and by the fact that the point can be freely moved about. When it is certain that the needle has entered a cavity, the piston is withdrawn, and a specimen of the contained material is aspirated. Should no fluid be immediately found, it may be because the needle is too far in or has not penetrated to a sufficient depth. In such cases the needle may be withdrawn slightly or pushed further in, and a second attempt made to withdraw fluid; or it may be necessary to remove the needle slightly and alter its direction. If the result is still unsuccessful, the needle should be withdrawn entirely, and a new puncture made at some contiguous point.

After the aspiration is completed, the needle is quickly removed and the site of puncture is sealed with collodion or is covered with a small pad of sterile gauze held in place by a strip of adhesive plaster.

Examination of the Aspirated Material.—Whenever fluid is detected a quantity sufficient for examination should be withdrawn. Frequently by a gross examination alone of the fluid sufficient information may be obtained as to its character. With the naked eye, one can often make a diagnosis between a serous, bloody, or purulent fluid, by carefully noting the color, clearness, and consistency of the material withdrawn. Valuable information can likewise be obtained from the odor.

For more definite and exact information, a chemical, microscopical, and bacteriological examination will be necessary. In preparation for such an examination a few drops of the liquid should be injected into culture tubes, and the remainder placed in a sterilized test-tube,

previously provided, and kept in readiness for this purpose. At times the aspirated fluid may be so thick that only a few flakes or flocules of purulent matter can be obtained. Such material, or any fragments of tissue adhering to the needle point should be carefully transferred to a glass slide for later microscopical examination. Even specimens from solid growths large enough for microscopical examination may at times be obtained by rotating the needle and moving it back and forth sufficiently to detach a small fragment, which may then be secured by producing a strong vacuum in the syringe and very carefully withdrawing the needle.

The laboratory examination of the fluid, the technic of which may be found fully described in manuals on clinical laboratory methods, should be made along the following lines and with reference to the special points mentioned.

1. *Physical Characteristics.*—The color, odor, clearness, consistency, reaction, coagulability and specific gravity of the fluid, and the character of the sediment should be noted.

2. *Chemical examination* should include tests for albumin, serum globulin, sugar, bile, urea, blood, pus, etc.

3. *Microscopical examination* is made for the purpose of detecting the presence of blood-corpuscles, epithelial cells, hematoidin and cholesterin crystals, specific tumor cells or fragments, necrotic tissue, ameba, hydatid hooklets, ray fungi, etc.

4. *Bacteriological Examination.*—Smear preparations are made and examined for pathogenic bacteria, while organisms susceptible of culture are inoculated upon suitable media and later examined microscopically. Thus organisms may be identified which are not readily detected by direct examination.

5. *Cystodiagnosis.*—By this is understood the determination of the cause of an effusion from the relative number and the character of its cellular constituents.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE PLEURA.

This is a safe and simple operation employed to confirm the diagnosis of a pleural effusion or to ascertain the nature of the fluid. The danger of injuring the lung and producing a pneumothorax need not be considered if reasonable care be observed in performing the puncture.

Location of the Puncture.—No fixed rule can be laid down, the point chosen for the puncture depending upon the physical examina-

tion. The needle should enter a spot where there is dullness and an absence of respiratory sounds, voice, and fremitus, and, at the same time, the point of puncture should lie well below the level of the effusion. If it is made at too high a level, the point of the needle may lacerate the lung; or, if too low, injury to the diaphragm, liver, or spleen may result. As a general thing, however, entrance of the needle in the sixth interspace in the anterior axillary line, in the sixth or seventh

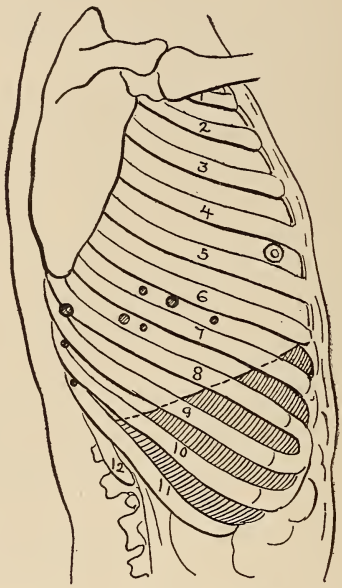


Fig. 233.—Showing the points for inserting the needle in exploratory puncture of the pleura. (Large dots represent points of election.)

interspace in the midaxillary line, or the eighth interspace below the angle of the scapula will reveal the presence of fluid if such exist (Fig. 233).

Position of the Patient.—If too weak to sit upright, the patient may lie semirecumbent for a lateral puncture, and for a posterior puncture in a lateral prone position, with the body curved forward and the arm of the affected side elevated (Fig. 234). In uncomplicated cases, an upright sitting posture should be assumed, with the arm of the affected side elevated for the purpose of widening the intercostal spaces (Fig. 235).

Technic.—To avoid injury to the upper intercostal artery the needle is inserted near the upper margin of the rib which forms the lower boundary of the space chosen for the puncture. The thumb and forefinger of the left hand steady the tissues, while the needle is

slowly and steadily inserted upward and inward, until its point enters the pleural sac. From 1 to 1 1/2 inches (about 2.5 to 4 cm.) under

Fig. 234.—Lateral position for exploratory puncture of the pleura.

Fig. 235.—Exploratory puncture of the pleura with the patient sitting upright.

ordinary conditions, and more in fat subjects or in those with very thick pleura, may be estimated as the thickness of the thoracic wall

through which the needle will have to pass before entering the pleural cavity. The lack of resistance and the mobility of the needle will acquaint one of its entrance into a cavity.

If fluid is not immediately obtained, the direction of the needle

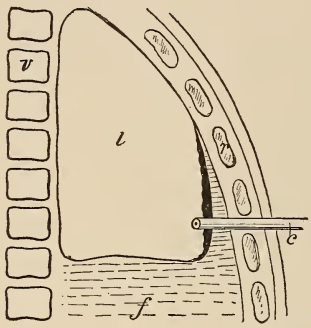


Fig. 236.

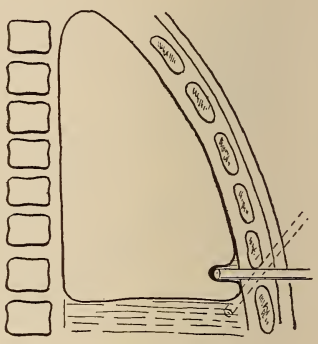


Fig. 237.

Fig. 236.—Showing the failure to withdraw fluid from the needle being inserted too far. (After Gumprecht.)

Fig. 237.—Showing the failure to withdraw fluid from the needle entering the pleura at too high a level. (After Gumprecht.)

may be changed slightly, or it may be entirely withdrawn and inserted in other locations before the attempt is abandoned. Failure to withdraw fluid may be due to the needle entering the lung (Fig. 237) or to the fluid being encapsulated in a space not entered by the aspirating

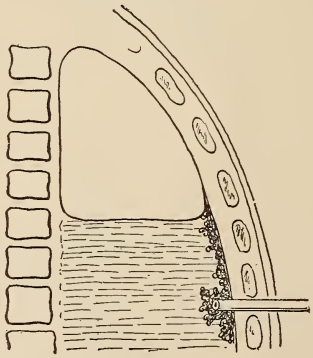


Fig. 238.—Showing the failure to withdraw fluid from the point of the needle becoming imbedded in a thickened pleura. (After Gumprecht.)

needle. Again, the point of the needle may become buried in adhesions or a thickened pleura (Fig. 238), or its caliber may become blocked by coagulated material. In addition to determining the presence of fluid, any unusual thickness or density of the pleura may be

appreciated by the operator through the amount of resistance offered to the entrance of the needle. Upon completion of the aspiration, the needle is quickly withdrawn, and the site of the puncture is closed with collodion and cotton.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE LUNG.

Previous to undertaking any operative procedure upon a pulmonary cavity, such as a tubercular, bronchiectatic, echinococcic, or abscess cavity, an exploratory puncture will be of great service, not only as an aid to a physical examination in detecting such a cavity, but likewise in determining its size and exact location, and its character by an examination of the fluid withdrawn.

There is considerable risk of infecting the pleura or of producing a cellulitis if aspiration of a pulmonary cavity without immediate drainage be performed, hence the exploratory puncture should only be performed on the operating-table with the patient ready to be anesthetized, and with all preparations to incise and drain the cavity completed beforehand, in case pus is obtained.

Location of the Puncture.—This will depend entirely upon the approximate situation of the cavity, as determined by the physical signs.

Technic.—A fair-sized aspirating needle, at least 4 inches (10 cm.) long, will be required. While the patient holds the breath to limit movement of the lungs, the needle is inserted in the direction of the supposed cavity, close to the upper margin of the rib, in the same manner as already described for exploratory puncture of the pleura (page 234). As the needle is slowly advanced, attempts to withdraw fluid are made at successive depths. The abscess may be superficial, and even adherent to the chest wall where it can be easily reached, but more often it will be necessary to insert the needle a distance of 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) before the cavity is entered. Failing to withdraw pus, the needle should be removed and reinserted at another spot. It may even be necessary to make a number of punctures before being successful, as the localization of a pulmonary cavity is at times a most difficult matter. When a needle enters a cavity some idea of its size may be obtained from the range of motion of the needle and from the quantity of secretion withdrawn, though, if there has been considerable expectoration previous to the puncture, little or no fluid will be obtained, even though the needle enter a cavity.

When pus is obtained, the needle should be left in place as a

guide for the incision and drainage, and, while the patient is being anesthetized, great care should be taken to see that the needle is not displaced.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE PERICARDIUM.

An exploratory puncture may be required as a means of making a positive diagnosis of the presence of fluid within the pericardium or for the purpose of choosing a route through which such fluid may be reached and evacuated. Puncture of the pericardium should not be undertaken lightly, and the dangers of injuring the internal mammary vessels or pleura, or of puncturing the thin-walled auricles of the heart, should impress upon the operator the necessity of extreme care when performing this operation.

Location of the Puncture.—To eliminate as far as possible the dangers of the operation, special sites for puncture have been recom-

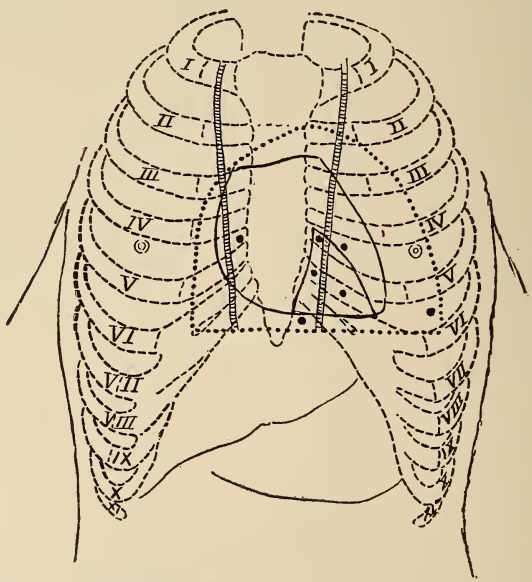


FIG. 239.—Points for puncturing the pericardium. The dotted line indicates a distended pericardial sac.

mended, as follows: (1) In the fourth or fifth interspace, either close to the left sternal margin or 1 inch (2.5 cm.) to the left of it. Either of these points will avoid the internal mammary artery and veins which run vertically downward 1/2 inch (1 cm.) from the sternal margin. (2) In the fourth intercostal space, close to the right of the sternum. It is claimed that from this point it is impossible to injure

the heart, but this avenue of approach is only suitable when the amount of fluid is large. (3) Inserting the needle directly upward and backward close to the costal margin in the space between the ensiform cartilage and the seventh costal cartilage on the left side. (4) When it is possible to outline accurately the shape of the pericardium and locate the position of the apex beat by means of pulsation or friction rubs, the method recommended by Curschman, Romberg, Kussmaul, and others, may be employed. The puncture is made in the fifth or sixth left interspace outside the nipple line between the apex beat and the outer limit of dullness (Fig. 239).

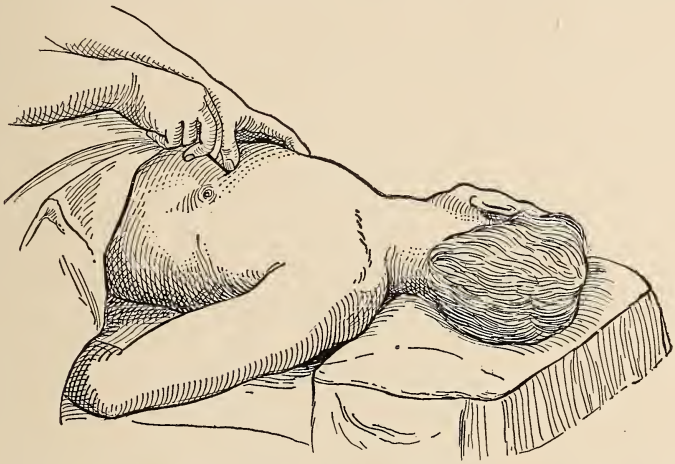


Fig. 240.—Showing the method of inserting the needle in an exploratory puncture of the pericardium.

The selection of one of these sites over the others will be made according to the degree of distention of the pericardium and its shape, which is determined by outlining the area of dullness.

Preparation of the Patient.—If the patient be a male, the chest should be shaved, and, in any case, the skin must be sterilized thoroughly before making the puncture.

Position of the Patient.—The operation may be performed with the patient semirecumbent or in the upright sitting posture.

Technic.—As already emphasized, all the aseptic precautions enumerated under exploratory punctures (page 231) should be carefully carried out. The area of dullness is accurately marked out and the point for puncture thereby determined upon. The thumb of the left hand is placed as a guide upon the lower rib bounding the intercostal space selected, and the needle point is inserted just above the margin of the rib so as to avoid the upper intercostal artery (Fig. 240). The

needle should be introduced slowly and with great care almost in the sagittal plane and directed slightly toward the median line. Entrance into the pericardial sac is suspected when resistance to the progress of the needle is no longer encountered, or when the heart is felt striking against the needle point. If fluid is not reached from one location the other points of entrance above mentioned may be employed if necessary. Should the fluid obtained be purulent in character, prompt incision and drainage is indicated.

When the purpose of the puncture is accomplished, the needle is slowly withdrawn, and the point of puncture is sealed with collodion and cotton.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE PERITONEAL CAVITY.

Aspiration of small quantities of peritoneal fluid and examination of the specimen obtained may be required to determine the type of an effusion into the peritoneal cavity—whether it be serous, inflammatory, hemorrhagic, or chylous. Puncture of solid or fluctuating masses within the abdomen may likewise be performed as a diagnostic measure, but the dangers of producing serious complications through puncture of the intestine or other organs, or from leakage of fluid, especially if it be purulent, into the peritoneal cavity stamps it as an unsafe method except in those cases where the tumor is in close relation to the abdominal wall. When the presence of pus is suspected, it is not wise to perform an exploratory puncture unless everything is in readiness for an immediate operation. The comparative safety of an exploratory laparotomy and the fact that much more valuable information can be thus obtained render this the operation of choice.

Location of the Puncture.—For puncture of the peritoneal cavity, a point midway between the umbilicus and the pubes in the median line should be chosen for the insertion of the needle.

Position of the Patient.—The patient either sits upright, in order to allow the gravitation of the fluid to the lowest level, or he may be propped up in a semireclining position.

Preparation of the Patient.—The site for puncture should be shaved and properly sterilized. *The bladder should always be emptied just previous to the operation.*

Technic.—The needle is inserted directly backward until the resistance of the abdominal wall is no longer felt and the point of the needle moves freely within the abdominal cavity. Sufficient fluid is withdrawn for examination, and, after removal of the needle, the site of entrance is closed with a thin layer of collodion and cotton.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE LIVER.

Exploration of the liver by means of an aspirating needle may be required for the purpose of making a positive diagnosis in cases of suspected amebic or pyogenic abscess, or hydatid cyst. Exploratory puncture should not be performed, however, unless the preparations for an immediate operation, if such be necessary, are completed beforehand, for no matter how small the puncture may be, leakage of fluid is liable to occur and cause serious damage.

Location of the Puncture.—This will depend upon the symptoms and physical signs in each individual case. If at any one point there

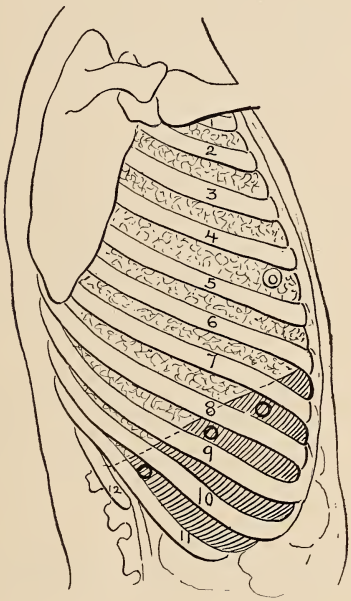


Fig. 241.—Points for puncture of the liver.

be localized pain, tenderness on palpation, peritoneal crepitation, or distinct bulging, such spot should be chosen for the puncture. In the absence of signs pointing to localization, the fact that most liver abscesses are situated in the upper posterior portion of the right lobe should be borne in mind and the puncture made accordingly, the needle being inserted in the midaxillary line on the right side through the ninth, tenth, or eleventh interspace, or below the angle of the scapula through the tenth interspace (Fig. 241). Puncture may also be made anteriorly directly into the area of liver dullness below the line of the pleura.

Anesthesia.—The puncture may be made under local anesthesia, but if it is likely that a number of punctures will be necessary and an operation is to be performed, it is better to give a general anesthetic at the start.

Technic.—The needle is slowly introduced inward and slightly upward to its full extent, and suction is attempted. If fluid is not obtained, the needle is slowly withdrawn, a vacuum being maintained in the syringe in the meantime, so as to withdraw pus in case the point of the needle has previously passed through a cavity into healthy tissue. Near the surface of the liver the direction of the needle is altered, and it is inserted again in a different plane. In this manner a large area of the liver may be explored in all directions from one external puncture, provided care is exercised not to injure the pleura and lung above, or the gall-bladder and intestines below. To avoid lacerating the liver, the exploring needle must be allowed to move freely with the liver as it rises or descends during respiration. If fluid is not immediately found, a number of punctures should be made before the operation is abandoned. Failure to draw pus into the syringe does not necessarily signify absence of an abscess, for at times the material forming the abscess is so thick that it will not pass into the needle, and only a drop or two of pus will be discovered on close examination, clinging to the needle point.

Having located an abscess, the needle should be left *in situ* as a guide, for it is not an uncommon experience, when pus is discovered by aspiration and the needle removed, to fail to locate the abscess at a subsequent operation.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE SPLEEN.

As a diagnostic measure, puncture of the spleen may be performed without danger if the organ is hard, as is found in chronic malaria, but in infectious diseases with a large, soft, and friable spleen it is an unjustifiable procedure. Laceration of the capsule followed by hemorrhage, suppuration in the spleen, and peritonitis have been known to result. Likewise puncture of the spleen in suspected cases of typhoid fever is no longer warranted, since we have other methods of diagnosis, such as Widal's test, which are both safe and adequate. When fluctuation has been demonstrated, as in splenic abscess or hydatid disease, examination of the fluid obtained by aspiration may give conclusive information; but here again, as in exploratory punctures of the liver or lungs, preparations for incision and drainage, in case

such should be necessary, should be completed before the puncture is made.

Location of Puncture.—The spleen can be reached by inserting the needle through the tenth intercostal space on the left side (Fig. 242). If the organ is markedly enlarged, some point below the left costal margin, determined by percussion of the spleen, may be chosen.

Position of the Patient.—The patient may assume either the sitting posture with the left arm elevated and the hand on the opposite

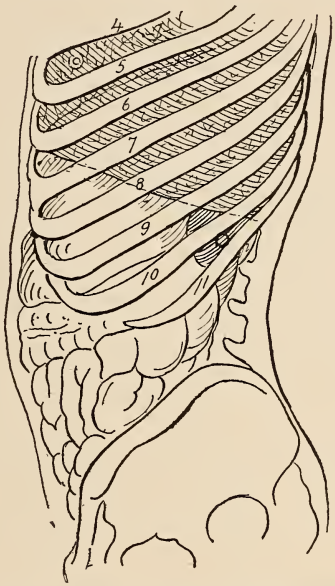


FIG. 242.—Point for puncturing the spleen.

shoulder, or the recumbent position, depending upon which gives the most ready access to the region of operation.

Technic.—A fine and fairly long aspirating needle should be employed. The patient is instructed to hold his breath, to lessen the danger of lacerating the organ, and the operator quickly inserts the needle at the chosen site and makes the aspiration with as little delay as possible. The needle is then withdrawn, and the site of puncture is closed with a thin covering of collodion and cotton.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE KIDNEYS.

Exploratory aspiration may be employed to detect collections of pus or other fluids in the region of the kidney. An exploratory incision, however, and subsequent aspiration after exposure of the mass is a far more satisfactory method of diagnosis.

Location of the Puncture.—The needle should be introduced at a point about 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) from the median line, to avoid the erector spinæ muscles, and a little below the last rib on the left side, and, on the right side, between the last rib and the crest of the ilium.

Position of Patient.—The patient may sit up, with the back bent forward, or he may lie partly upon the unaffected side and partly upon the abdomen, with the body bent forward in a curve.

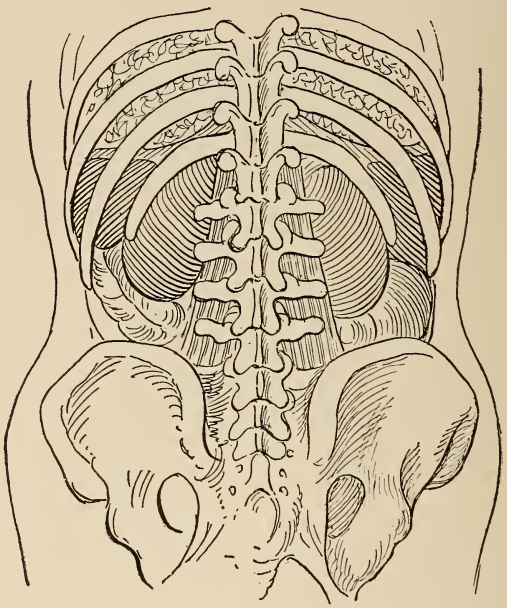


FIG. 243.—Showing the relations of the kidneys from behind.

Technic.—A long fine needle should be employed. The needle is slowly introduced forward and slightly inward toward the median line, frequent tests at aspiration being made as the needle is advanced. When fluid is discovered, a sufficient quantity for diagnosis is withdrawn, and the site of puncture is sealed with a cotton and collodion dressing.

EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF JOINTS.

This constitutes a most valuable aid in ascertaining the character of a joint effusion. The puncture, as in all exploratory punctures, should be made under strict aseptic precautions. Care should be exercised not to insert the needle at a point where blood-vessels or important nerves would be encountered and to avoid producing any injury to the cartilage of the joint, lest serious complications result.

The sites for puncture of those joints to which the method is most often applied are as follows:

The Knee-joint.—The needle may be inserted into either side of the joint—but preferably in the outer side—beneath the patella at a

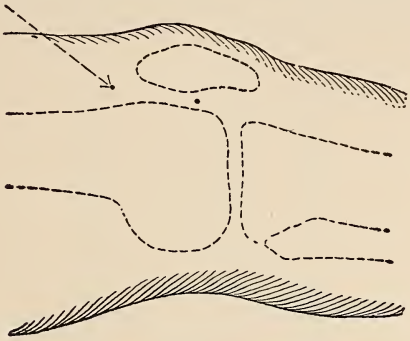


FIG. 244.—Points for puncturing the knee-joint.

point where fluctuation or distention is most in evidence. When the swelling is more marked above the patella, the needle may be introduced from above downward behind the bone (Fig. 244).

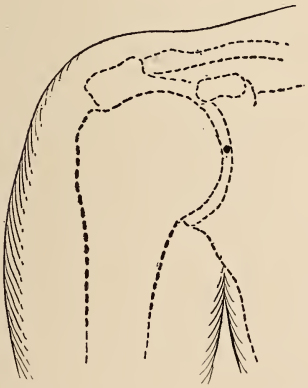


FIG. 245.—Point for puncturing the shoulder-joint.

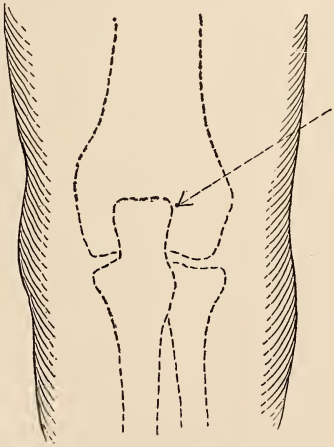


FIG. 246.—Point for puncturing the elbow-joint.

The Shoulder-joint.—Entrance to the joint may be readily effected by introducing the needle through the center of the joint from in front (Fig. 245).

The Elbow-joint.—The puncture is best made upon the outer side of the joint, the needle being inserted to the outer side of the tri-

ceps muscle downward and inward, beneath the olecranon process (Fig. 246).

The Ankle-joint.—To avoid injuring the vessels and nerves which lie opposite the middle of the joint, the needle should be introduced from in front between the anterior margin of the external malleolus and the adjoining surface of the tibia (Fig. 247).

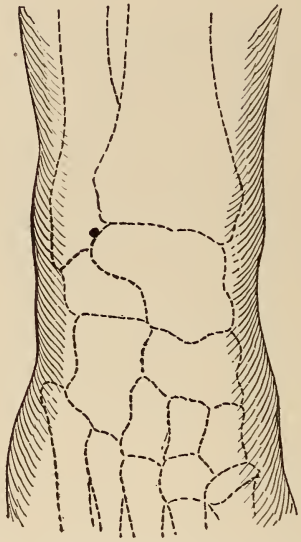


FIG. 247.—Point for puncturing the ankle-joint.

SPINAL OR LUMBAR PUNCTURE.

Lumbar puncture, an operation first proposed by Quincke for the withdrawal of cerebrospinal fluid from the spinal canal, has both diagnostic and therapeutic value. This procedure is of diagnostic importance through the information that may be obtained in estimating the pressure of the cerebrospinal fluid and determining its characteristics by physical, chemical, microscopical, and bacteriological examination.

Among its therapeutic uses is its employment as a "decompressive agent," in cases of meningitis, hydrocephalus, intracranial tumors, cerebral abscess, uremia, etc., etc. On account of the continuity of the spaces in the brain and spinal column, temporary relief of intracranial and interspinal pressure may be obtained in the above cases by the withdrawal of small amounts of fluid from the spinal canal. In cerebrospinal meningitis, drainage by lumbar puncture is often followed by good results, as not only is the pressure upon the cord and

cerebral centers lessened, but pus is withdrawn, and the toxicity of the spinal fluid is thereby diminished.

It is in the administration of antitetanic serum and antiserum in cerebrospinal meningitis, and the production of spinal anesthesia, however, that lumbar puncture finds its chief therapeutic applications.

Anatomy.—In the lumbar portion of the vertebral column the

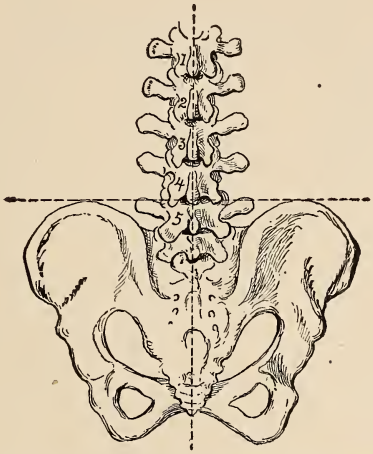


FIG. 248.—Anatomy of the lumbar vertebræ.

spinous processes do not project downward to such a degree as in other portions, and there is a distinct space (about 7/8 inch (22 mm.) in the transverse and 3/5 inch (15 mm.) in the vertical diameter) between the vertebral arches filled with ligaments through which a needle may be readily passed into the spinal canal (Fig. 248). The spinal cord reaches only to the second lumbar vertebra, so if the punc-

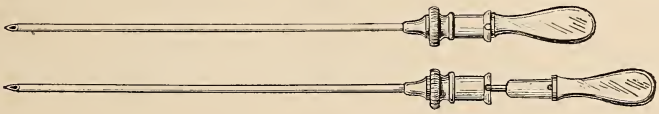


FIG. 249.—Stylet needle for spinal puncture.

ture be made below that point, and the introduction of the needle be carried out under rigid asepsis the operation is practically harmless.

The Needle.—The puncture is best made with a special stylet needle devised for the purpose. It should be at least 3 1/2 inches (9 cm.) long and about 1/25 of an inch (1 mm.) in diameter, and the point should be short and ground almost squarely across (Fig. 249). In the

absence of such a needle, the ordinary aspirating needle of about the same size may be substituted. In addition, a scalpel, a sterilized graduated test-tube, culture tubes, and an ordinary hydrometer (Fig. 250)

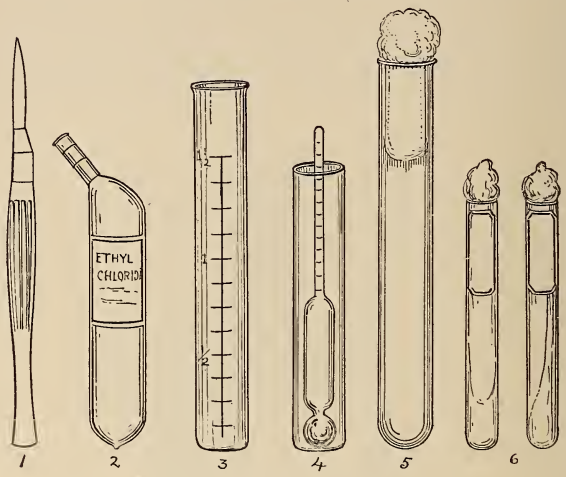


FIG. 250.—Apparatus for spinal puncture.
1, Scalpel; 2, ethyl chlorid tube; 3, small glass graduate; 4, hydrometer; 5, sterile test-tube; 6, culture tubes.

will be required. When it is desired to estimate accurately the cerebrospinal pressure, a small mercury manometer will also be required.

Location of the Puncture.—The space between the third and

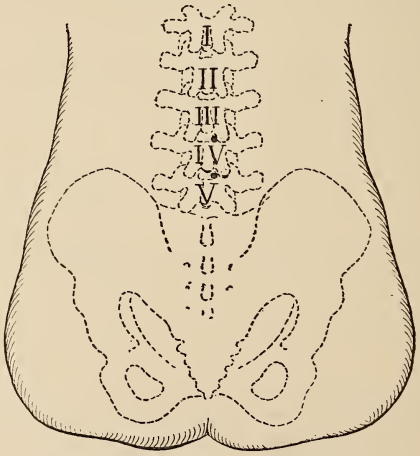


FIG. 251.—Points for spinal puncture.

fourth or that between the fourth and fifth lumbar vertebræ is usually chosen (Fig. 251), though, if the puncture is performed for diagnostic

purposes, it may be made lower—between the fifth lumbar and first sacral vertebrae in order to withdraw any sediment that may be present.

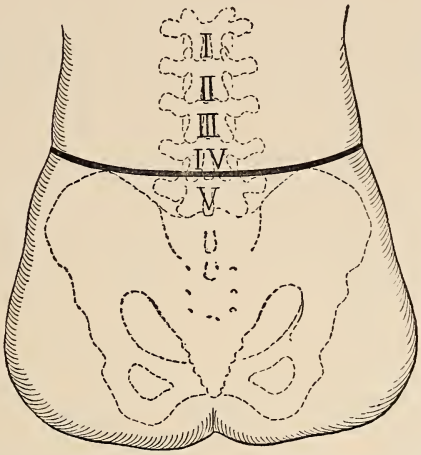


FIG. 252.—Showing the method of locating the fourth spinous process by passing a line through the highest points of the iliac crests.

A point just below the tip of the spinous process of the vertebra forming the upper boundary of the chosen interspace at a distance of about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) to one side of the median line is selected for the

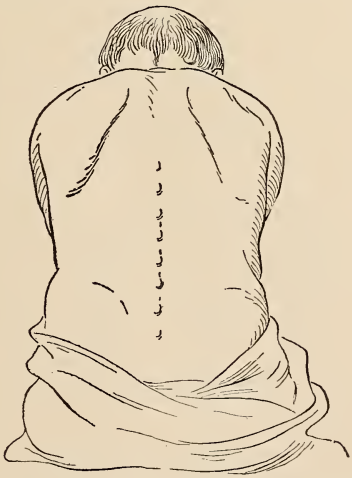


FIG. 253.—Sitting posture for spinal puncture.

insertion of the needle. In children, however, the spinous processes being short, the needle may be inserted in the median line.

The spinous processes may be readily identified by counting down

from the seventh cervical vertebra, unless the individual be very stout. If, however, any difficulty is experienced in locating this vertebra, the landmarks may be quickly determined by passing a transverse line between the highest points of the iliac crests with the patient standing erect, and it will be found that such a line passes through the tip of the spinous process of the fourth lumbar vertebra (Fig. 252).

Position of the Patient.—The operation may be performed with the patient sitting in a chair, with the body bent well forward in the form of a curve (Fig. 253), so as to widen the intervertebral spaces as much as is possible. If this is impracticable, the patient may lie on his left side with his knees drawn up, shoulders forward, and body bent forward in an arch (Fig. 254).

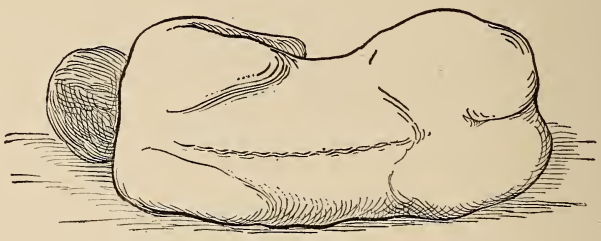


Fig. 254.—Lateral position for spinal puncture.

Preparations.—The site for the puncture should be carefully cleansed, and thorough asepsis must be observed during the entire operation. The needle should be boiled and the operator's hands should be properly sterilized.

Anesthesia.—With children general anesthesia may be necessary. In other cases, local anesthesia with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain, or by freezing, as for any puncture, will answer all purposes.

Technic.—To avoid carrying in infection, a puncture should be made with a scalpel through the skin at the chosen spot (Fig. 255). The operator's left thumb or index finger is then placed between the two spinous processes as a guide, and the point of the needle is inserted on the same level as the finger about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) from the median line, in an upward and inward direction (Fig. 256), until it enters the spinal canal. In a child this will usually occur at a depth of from 3/4 to 1 1/2 inches (about 2 to 4 cm.) and in an adult from 2 1/2 to 3 inches (about 6 to 7.5 cm.). If the needle strikes bone, it should be slightly withdrawn and then reinserted, its direction being changed somewhat.

As soon as the canal is entered, the stylet is withdrawn, and the fluid, as it oozes from the needle drop by drop, is collected in a

FIG. 255.—Spinal puncture. First step, nicking the skin at the point of puncture.

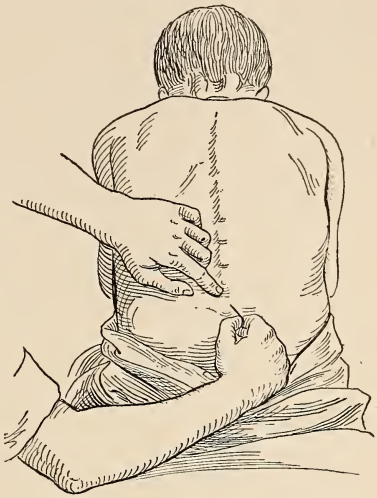


FIG. 256.—Spinal puncture. Second step, inserting the needle.

sterile test-tube (Fig. 257). The first few drops are usually blood-stained, and, if so, they should be discarded. Not more than 1 1/4 drams (about 5 c.c.) of fluid should be withdrawn from the spinal

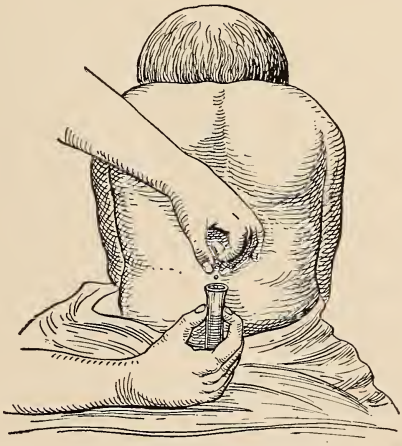


FIG. 257.—Spinal puncture. Third step, collecting the cerebrospinal fluid.

canal of a child, nor more than 1/2 ounce (15 c.c.) from an adult, at one time for diagnostic purposes. When, however, the puncture is performed to relieve intracranial pressure, from 1 ounce to 1 1/2

ounce (30 to 45 c.c.) of fluid may be removed, according to the tension, and even more if no ill effects are observed. A dry puncture is sometimes encountered and may be due to the needle not entering the canal, to its being plugged, or from the fluid being too thick to flow through its lumen.

Normal Cerebrospinal Fluid and its Pathological Variations.—Normally, the cerebrospinal fluid escapes slowly, while in certain diseased conditions with increased pressure, as meningitis, tumor of the brain, uremia, paresis, hydrocephalus, etc., and in certain infectious diseases, it may spurt out. The pressure may be roughly estimated by the strength of the flow from the needle, a strong spurt of fluid indicating an increased amount of pressure, and very slow-coming drops the reverse. It may be more accurately measured by attaching to the needle a small mercury manometer by a small rubber tube, 8 to 16 inches (20 to 40 cm.) long, filled with a 1 per cent. solution of carbolic acid. This, of course, is to be done before any of the fluid is permitted to escape. According to Sahli, the normal dural pressure in the dorsal position is 60 to 100 mm. of water (5 to 7.3 mm. of mercury), and 200 to 800 mm. of water (15 to 60 mm. of mercury) in certain pathological conditions.

Normal cerebrospinal fluid is colorless and water-like in clearness, of alkaline reaction, has a specific gravity of 1003 to 1004, and exists in but small amounts, varying between 1/2 and 2 ounces (15 and 60 c.c.) in adults and in infants between 3 and 6 drams (10 and 20 c.c.). In certain infectious diseases, meningitis, hydrocephalus, general paresis, etc., the amount of cerebrospinal fluid may be greatly increased. It contains but little albumin (0.02 to 0.05 per cent.), some chlorids (0.7 per cent.), a copper-reducing body claimed to be sugar, and traces of urea (0.035 to 0.04 per cent.). In nephritis and uremia, the urea is largely increased and the amount of chlorids may rise slightly; in hydrocephalus there may be a slight increase in the urea. In apoplexy, meningitis, paresis, hydrocephalus, and brain tumor, the quantity of albumin may be markedly increased. A bloody or blood-stained fluid will be found in intrameningeal cranial hemorrhages and in injuries of the skull extending through the dura, but in injuries outside the dura the fluid will be clear; bloody fluid may also occur in meningitis. In jaundice it may be greenish-yellow in color. A cloudy, purulent fluid indicates inflammation of the meninges, as does a rise in the specific gravity, and the appearance of white blood cells on examination. In tubercular meningitis, however, the fluid is clear and limpid. It is only possible to determine the specific form of infection by bacterio-

logical examination. Identification of the diplococcus intracellularis, pneumococcus, streptococcus, or tubercle bacilli will definitely settle the nature of the infection.

Lumbar Puncture as a Means of Administering Antitoxic Sera.—When lumbar puncture is employed for the purpose of administering sera in tetanus and cerebrospinal meningitis, a fairly large syringe, one with a capacity of at least 1 ounce (30 c.c.), is required in addition to the other instruments necessary for spinal puncture. The puncture is made in the manner described above, and a quantity of cerebrospinal fluid equal to the amount of serum to be injected is allowed to escape from the canal; the serum is then warmed and is slowly injected through the same needle employed for the puncture.

In cases of tetanus, Rogers (*Journal of the American Medical Association*, July 1, 1905), injects 2 3/4 to 5 1/2 drams (10 to 20 c.c.) of antitetanic serum into the nerves of the cauda equina, as well as subcutaneously in the neighborhood of the wound, intravenously, and into the nerves of the brachial plexus if the site of infection is upon the upper extremity, and into the sciatic and anterior crural nerves if the wound is in the lower extremity. In making the spinal injection the needle is inserted in the space between the second and third lumbar vertebræ, so as to strike the cauda equina, and is manipulated back and forth with the object of wounding some of the nerves, which is manifested by twitching of the legs; 2 3/4 to 5 1/2 drams (10 to 20 c.c.) of serum are then injected into and around these injured nerves.

For cases of cerebrospinal meningitis, 1 to 1 1/2 ounces (30 to 45 c.c.) of serum are injected into the third or fourth lumbar space after a like amount of cerebrospinal fluid has been evacuated. Subsequent injections are given at intervals of twelve to twenty-four hours, according to the severity of the case, for three or four days. If after a lapse of several days the symptoms return, another series of injections is given. In place of a syringe, a glass funnel holding about 5 1/2 drams (20 c.c.) attached to the needle by rubber tubing may be employed for administering the serum, as advised by Koplik.

CHAPTER X.

ASPIRATIONS.

ASPIRATION OF THE PLEURAL CAVITY.

Paracentesis thoracis, also spoken of as thoracentesis and pleurocentesis, consists in the evacuation of fluid from the pleural cavities by means of a hollow needle or trocar to which an aspirator is attached.

Indications.—When the presence of fluid has been made out by the physical signs and the diagnosis verified by an exploratory puncture, thoracentesis is indicated in sero-fibrinous effusions under the following conditions:

1. When the fluid is sufficient to produce dyspnea, cyanosis, and cardiac weakness.

2. In very large effusions whether or not pressure symptoms are present, especially if bilateral.

3. When the heart is displaced by the presence of fluid.

4. When the fluid is not absorbed within a week or ten days in spite of medical treatment.

The advantages of early aspiration are that adhesions may be prevented and the course of the disease considerably shortened. Long continued pressure upon the lung by an effusion may prevent its subsequent full expansion, and reappearance of the fluid is more apt to occur when the operation has been delayed.

Apparatus, Etc.—Evacuation of the fluid is accomplished by means of suction; for this purpose a hollow needle or a trocar connected with either an aspirator or a syphonage apparatus may be employed. In addition, a scalpel or bistoury, and collodion and cotton, or a pad of sterile gauze and adhesive plaster for the dressing, should be supplied.

The Aspirating Needle.—Whether an ordinary aspirating needle or trocar and cannula be employed does not make any material difference, though the latter has some advantages. Where the trocar form of needle is employed the point of the cannula may be moved about without danger after the stylet is removed, and, should the lumen of the cannula become plugged, the obstacle may be removed without the necessity of withdrawing the cannula by simply reinserting

the stylet. With an aspirating needle, on the other hand, the unprotected point of the needle may injure the lung or diaphragm, and, furthermore, should the lumen of the needle become blocked, it may be necessary to withdraw it entirely in order to clear out the obstruction. If an aspirating needle is used, one should be chosen at least 3 inches (7.6 cm.) long and from 1/25 inch (1 mm.) to 1/12 inch (2 mm.) in diameter depending upon the consistency of the material to be evacuated.

In a properly made trocar the stylet should fit the point of the cannula accurately, and the cannula and stylet should gradually taper to a point, as if in one piece. The cannula is provided with a stopcock near the proximal end to prevent leakage of air when the stylet is withdrawn, while a lateral opening, for connection with the aspirator, is placed at a point distal to this stopcock, so that the stylet may be moved back and forth without disturbing the connections (Fig. 258).

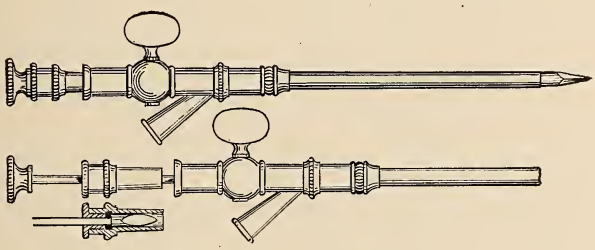


FIG. 258.—Aspirating trocar.

Aspirators.—The Potain, the Dieulafoy, or the heat vacuum apparatus is most commonly employed, though the aspiration may be satisfactorily made in a large proportion of cases by simple syphonage. The Dieulafoy instrument is most convenient for evacuating small collections of fluid and when it is desirable to be exact in the quantity removed, while for large effusions the Potain or the heat vacuum apparatus is best.

The Potain instrument (Fig. 259) consists of an exhausting pump, a large glass bottle, a rubber stopper through which passes the long arm of a Y-shaped metal tube with a stopcock in each limb, and two pieces of heavy rubber tubing, one connecting the needle or trocar with one arm of the Y, and the other joining the second arm and the exhausting pump. The instrument is assembled by inserting the stopper firmly into the glass receptacle and attaching one end of a piece of tubing to the stopcock *a* and the other to the needle or trocar. By means of the second tubing the exhausting syringe is connected with

stopcock *b*. The instrument should be carefully tested before using to see that all the connections are air-tight. To produce a vacuum, stopcock *a* is closed and stopcock *b* is opened, when, by pumping from thirty to fifty strokes, the air will be sufficiently exhausted.

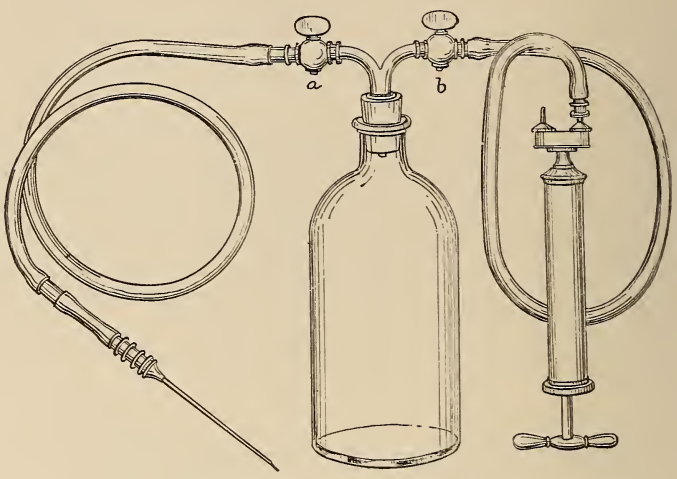


FIG. 259.—Potain aspirator.

Stopcock *b* is then closed, and the needle is inserted into the chest. As soon as its point enters the tissues, the vacuum is extended to the point by opening stopcock *a*, so that the moment fluid is reached it will be drawn by suction into the bottle. If the trocar is employed,

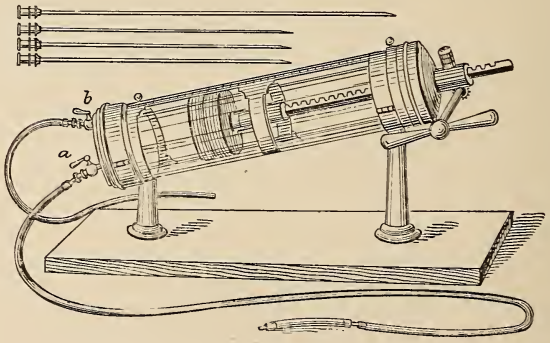


FIG. 260.—The Dieulafoy aspirator.

the stylet is not withdrawn until the trocar enters the chest; as this is done the stopcock on the cannula is closed, so as to exclude air.

The Dieulafoy apparatus (Fig. 260) consists of a glass syringe, with a capacity of 3 to 4 ounces (89 to 118 c.c.), provided with two outlets,

each furnished with a stopcock, and to which are fitted heavy rubber tubes. To the extremity of one tube a trocar or aspirating needle is attached, and at a distance of about 4 inches (10 cm.) from the needle end a piece of glass tubing is inserted as an index. The other piece of tubing leads from stopcock *b* to a basin to carry off the fluid discharged from the cylinder. To use the instrument both stopcocks are closed, and the piston is fully withdrawn and fixed in place by a spring. This produces the vacuum. The aspirating needle is then introduced in the chosen site, and, as soon as the needle point is buried in the tissues, the stopcock *a* is opened, allowing the vacuum to extend to the needle. The needle is then pushed on in until it enters the chest, the

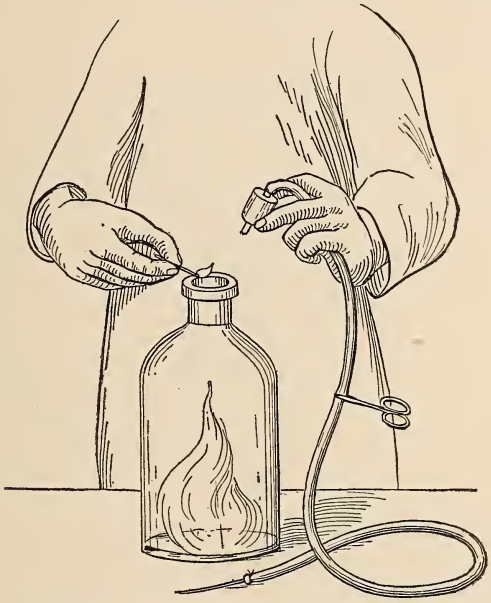


FIG. 261.—Connell's heat vacuum aspirator.

presence of fluid being first demonstrated as it passes through the glass index. When the aspirator is filled, stopcock *a* is closed and stopcock *b* opened, and the fluid is discharged from *b* by driving the piston back in place. This process of aspiration may be repeated as often as necessary without removing the needle or disconnecting the aspirator.

A very excellent form of aspirator and one that is frequently employed is the vacuum bottle described by Connell (*Medical Record*, July 4, 1903). It consists of a strong glass bottle with a capacity of about 5 pints (2.5 liters), having a mouth 1 inch (2.5 cm.)

wide, fitted with a rubber stopper through which passes a glass tube with a heavy piece of rubber tubing attached, ending in an aspirating needle. Three drams (11 c.c.) of 95 per cent. alcohol are poured into the bottle which is so manipulated that its inner surface is entirely coated, when the excess of alcohol is poured off. The alcohol is then ignited, and, as the flame reaches the bottom of the bottle, the cork is quickly inserted, the rubber tubing having been previously clamped (Fig. 261). A vacuum is thus produced which is amply sufficient to aspirate a chest.

Removal of an effusion by syphonage may be readily accomplished by means of a very simple apparatus. A piece of heavy tubing about 3 feet (90 cm.) long, a clamp to close one end of the tubing, a fun-

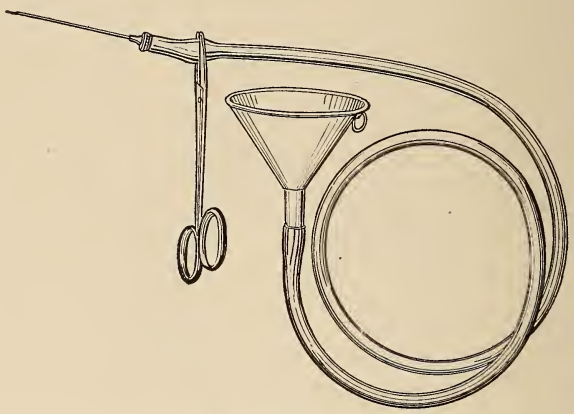


Fig. 262.—Syphonage aspirator.

nel, sterile water or saline solution to fill the tubing, and a receptacle to collect the fluid are the necessary requisites. One end of the tubing is fastened to the needle or the side outlet of the trocar and the other to the glass funnel (Fig. 262).

Site of Aspiration.—The needle should be inserted at a point where the physical signs or an exploratory puncture demonstrate the presence of fluid and at the lowest level of the fluid, that its withdrawal may be facilitated as far as possible by the action of gravity. The sixth intercostal space in the anterior axillary line, the sixth or seventh space in the midaxillary line, and the eighth space below the angle of the scapula are the points of election (Fig. 263).

Quantity Withdrawn.—It is not essential to empty the chest entirely at one sitting. The amount of fluid evacuated should be determined more by the manner in which the patient bears the operation, the

condition of the pulse, and signs of impending collapse rather than by the quantity of fluid present. In very large effusions as much as 3 pints (1500 c.c.) may be removed, but it is better to withdraw too little than too much, for what remains may be evacuated at a subsequent period; and it not infrequently happens that spontaneous absorption of the effusion follows the removal of even small quantities.

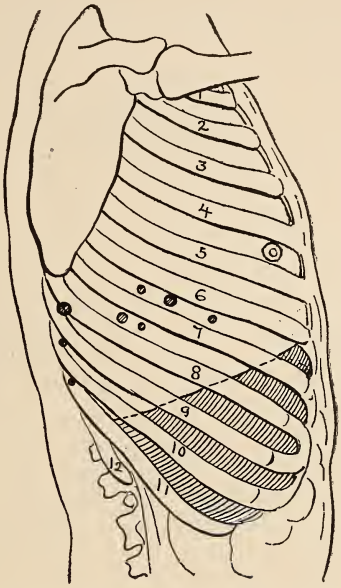


FIG. 263.—Sites for aspiration of the pleura. (The large dots represent the points of election.)

Position of Patient.—The aspiration is preferably performed with the patient on a bed so as to avoid the extra exertion of moving after the operation. When possible, an upright sitting position should be assumed, with the arm of the affected side raised, and the hand placed on some support or on the opposite shoulder to increase the breadth between the intercostal spaces (Fig. 264). If this is impracticable, the patient may lie near the edge of the bed, upon the back for a lateral puncture, or rolled slightly to the opposite side with the arm extended over the head for a posterior puncture (see Fig. 234).

Asepsis.—The skin at the site of operation should be thoroughly cleansed with soap and water, followed by alcohol, and then a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The operator's hands should also be properly cleansed, and the needle or trocar sterilized by boiling.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia by freezing with ethyl chlorid or

by infiltration with a few drops of a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain at the point of puncture will be sufficient.

Technic.—A vacuum is first produced in the aspirator and the needle or trocar attached. A point is then selected in the chosen interspace at a little distance from the upper margin of the lower rib

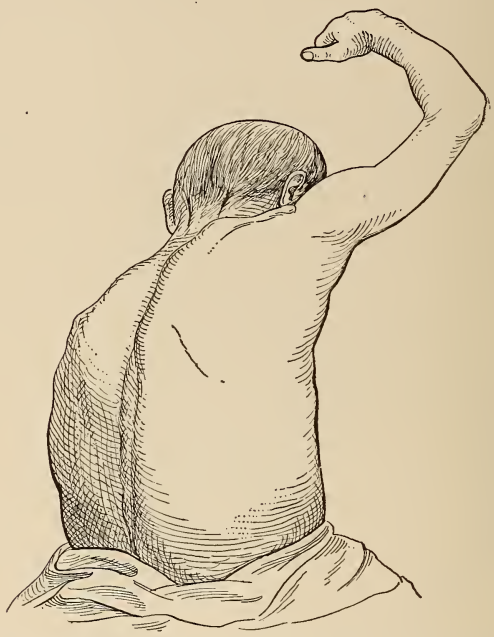


Fig. 264.—Position of patient for aspiration of the pleura.

bounding the space, so as to avoid the upper intercostal artery, and the skin is nicked with a scalpel. The thumb and forefinger of the left hand are used to steady the tissues overlying the intercostal space, while the needle or trocar is introduced with the right hand, the forefinger being placed on the needle to guard against its being inserted

Fig. 265.—Method of holding the trocar.

too deeply (Fig. 265). As soon as the point of the needle enters the tissues, the vacuum already present in the aspirator is extended to the needle point by opening the proper stopcock, and the needle is steadily pushed in until it enters the pleural sac, which will usually be at a

depth of less than 2 inches (5 cm.). The fluid should be withdrawn rather slowly in order that the structures may have time to adjust themselves to the changed conditions in the chest; at least twenty minutes to half an hour should be consumed in removing 2 pints (1000 c.c.).

Should the patient feel faint or suffer from vertigo or dyspnea the operation should be temporarily interrupted and the patient's head lowered. Complaints of severe pain, persistent cough, or

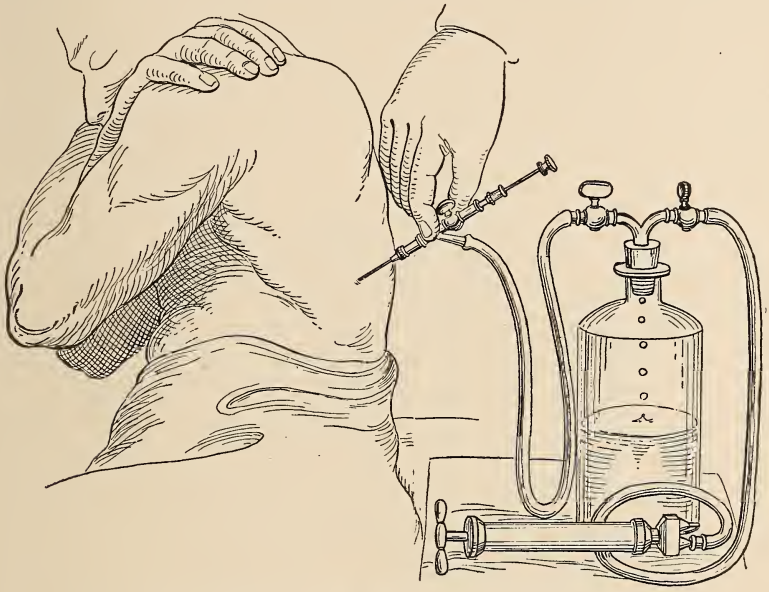


Fig. 266.—Aspiration of the pleura with the Potain apparatus.

expectoration of blood also demand that the aspiration be discontinued.

At the completion of the operation the tissues are pinched up around the shaft of the needle which is quickly withdrawn. The site of puncture is then dressed with collodion and cotton, or with a sterile pad of gauze held in place by adhesive strips.

In employing the syphonage apparatus the tubing is first filled with sterile solution, and the clamp is placed near the end of the tube to prevent the solution escaping. The needle is then introduced into the chest, while the free end of the tube is placed under water in the receptacle provided for the collection of the fluid. On removing the clamp from the tube the column of water is released and the fluid withdrawn by a process of syphonage (Fig. 267).

Complications and Dangers.—*Sepsis* is not to be feared if the ordinary aseptic precautions are observed.

Pneumothorax may follow injury to the lung by the aspirating needle or trocar, or be due to the rupture of adhesions or a cavity when expansion occurs, or to the entrance of air along the trocar.

Albuminous expectoration has been observed as a sequel to the sudden withdrawal of large quantities of fluid. The expectoration consists of a yellowish, frothy fluid, and it is accompanied by dyspnea, cyanosis, and a weak pulse. This condition usually begins during the

Fig. 267.—Aspiration of the pleura by syphonage.

withdrawal of the fluid, or comes on shortly afterward. It is explained on the supposition that the rapid withdrawal of fluid suddenly removes the pressure from the lung, which as a result becomes congested, and transudation into the air cells follows.

Expectoration of blood may result from the rupture of small pulmonary vessels, from congestion of the lung, or from injury to the lung tissue by the aspirating needle.

Sudden death is unusual, though it may occur, and at times without apparent cause. Embolism, cerebral anemia, from the sudden rush of blood to the expanding lung, hemorrhage into the pleural cavities from injury to the lung, and irritation of the terminations of the pneumogastric nerve have been suggested as explanations.

The occurrence of these complications may be reduced to a minimum by the employment of rigid asepsis, the observance of great care in the use of the needle or trocar, and the removal of only moderate amounts of fluid without haste.

ASPIRATION OF THE PERICARDIUM.

Paracentesis pericardii, or pericardicentesis, consists in the evacuation of the contents of the pericardial sac through aspiration by means of a needle or a fine trocar attached to a vacuum apparatus.

Indications.—Paracentesis of the pericardium should be performed:

1. If the effusion is sufficiently large to endanger life through profound disturbance in the cardiac action indicated by severe dyspnea,

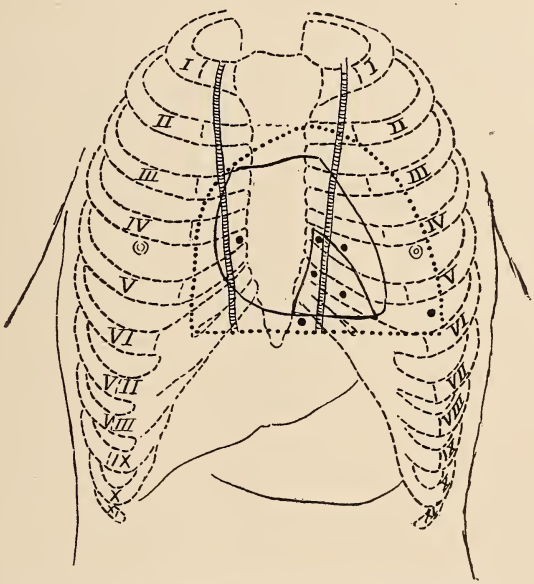


FIG. 268.—Points for aspiration of the pericardium.

small, rapid, and irregular pulse, and cyanosis, *the indicatio vitalis*, as death may result from syncope if the condition be not relieved without delay.

2. When a large effusion does not show any tendency to absorption after a prolonged and fair trial of medical means.

In the presence of a purulent exudate, though *temporary* relief may be obtained by aspiration, the condition is one that should be treated by incision and free drainage, just as in empyema.

Apparatus, Etc.—In tapping the pericardium a Potain or Dieulafoy

aspirator to which is attached a fine needle or trocar and cannula may be employed in the same way as used in the pleural cavity; a scalpel, collodion and cotton, or gauze and adhesive plaster for the purpose of dressings, should also be at hand.

Site of Aspiration.—The point for making the aspiration should be determined upon after having first detected the presence of fluid by an exploratory puncture (page 238). For the introduction of the needle there are four sites recommended:

1. In the fourth or fifth intercostal space close to the left sternal margin, or else 1 inch (2.5 cm.) to the left of it, thus passing either internal or external to the internal mammary artery.

2. In the fourth interspace close to the right of the sternum.

3. Close to the costal margin in the angle between the ensiform cartilage and seventh costal cartilage on the left, inserting the needle upward and backward.

4. In the fifth or sixth left interspace outside the nipple line between the apex beat and outer border of dullness (Fig. 268).

Quantity Withdrawn.—In small effusions the fluid may be removed at one sitting; but in large effusions, in order to avoid suddenly removing the extracardial pressure, it is preferable to withdraw not more than 3 to 4 ounces (89 to 118 c.c.) at the first sitting. This may be followed by absorption of the rest of the fluid, as is often the case in pleurisy. If there is no improvement at the end of a day or two, however, it will be necessary to perform a second tapping.

Position of Patient.—The operation may be performed either with the patient recumbent or sitting upright.

Asepsis.—The greatest regard to aseptic precautions should be observed. The area of operation should be shaved, if necessary, and the skin sterilized by first washing with soap and water, then with alcohol, followed by the use of a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The operator's hands are thoroughly cleansed, and the apparatus to be used in the operation is boiled.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia by freezing with ethyl chlorid or other freezing agents, or by injecting a few drops of a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain into the skin will be found useful.

Technic.—A nick is made through the skin with a scalpel at a point not far from the upper margin of the rib forming the lower boundary of the space previously determined upon for aspiration. The tissues are steadied between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, and the needle is held in the right hand, the index finger being placed on its shaft as a guide to the proper depth of insertion, as shown

in Fig. 265. The direction of the needle as it is introduced should be at first backward, until it enters the thorax, and then slightly inward into the pericardium; but if the approach is made in the left seventh costoxyphoid angle, the needle is introduced directly upward and backward. The introduction of the needle must be performed slowly, steadily, and with great care. The vacuum previously produced in the aspirator is extended to the needle, by opening the proper valve, as soon as the needle point enters the tissues, so that fluid will be withdrawn at the earliest possible moment and thus injury to the heart, through inserting the needle too deeply, will be avoided. Usually at a depth of 1 1/2 to 2 inches (3.8 cm. to 5 cm.) the pericardium will be entered. Care must be taken not to produce too great a vacuum in the aspirator lest the fluid be withdrawn too rapidly—it should simply trickle into the aspirator.

As soon as the desired quantity is removed, the aspirating needle is quickly withdrawn, and the seat of puncture is occluded with cotton and collodion, or else by a pad of sterile gauze held in place by adhesive plaster.

Complications and Dangers.—It should be remembered that aspiration of the pericardium is no simple procedure, but is an operation attended by danger. Infection of the pericardium, injury to the internal mammary vessels, puncture of the pleura, and laceration of the coronary artery and the heart itself by the aspirating needle have all been observed. Strict attention to asepsis, extreme care in introducing the aspirating needle or trocar, and observance of the various points in technic that have been emphasized will do much in preventing such accidents.

ASPIRATION FOR ASCITES.

Paracentesis of the abdomen consists in puncturing the peritoneal cavity by means of a trocar and cannula and withdrawing the fluid therein contained. It is an operation attended by practically no risks and can safely be repeated many times in the same individual when necessary.

Indications.—The abdomen may be aspirated in cases of ascites when the physical signs show the presence of fluid, and distention becomes distressing from pressure upward upon the diaphragm. It should also be performed when the fluid reaccumulates after a previous tapping and gives rise to pressure symptoms.

Instruments, Etc.—A straight or slightly curved cannula and trocar

of fair size—about 1/8 to 1/4 inch (3 to 6 mm.) in diameter—should be used. The trocar is spear-pointed and should fit the cannula perfectly so as to prevent the point of the latter catching in the tissues during its introduction (Fig. 269). An excellent form of cannula, and one frequently used, contains a lateral opening about 1/8 inch (3 mm.) from its end, for the purpose of avoiding stoppage of the escaping fluid, should the intestines or omentum obstruct the end opening of the instrument.

If desired, the aspirating apparatus of Potain or Dieulafoy (page 255) may be used in place of the simple trocar.

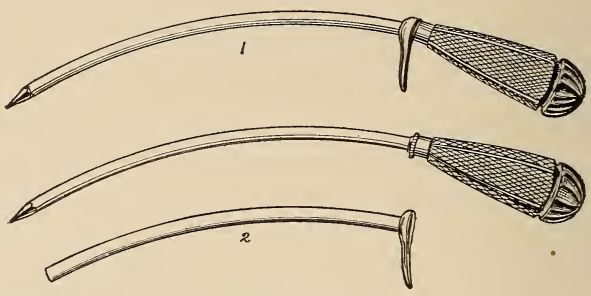


Fig. 269.—Trocar and cannula for aspirating the peritoneal cavity.
1, Trocar and cannula assembled; 2, showing trocar removed from the cannula.

In addition a scalpel to make a small preliminary incision, a sterile abdominal binder, a many-tailed bandage or large towel, and collodion and cotton or sterile gauze and adhesive plaster for the dressing should be provided.

Site of Puncture.—The selection of a location free from vessels and where the abdominal wall is thin is desirable. Usually a point in the linea alba midway between the umbilicus and pubes is selected, but the puncture may be at a point in the linea semilunaris just outside the rectus muscle on a line midway between the umbilicus and the anterior superior iliac spine (Fig. 270). Should repeated punctures be made, it will be of advantage to change the site a little each time so as to avoid entering adhesions which may have been produced by a previous puncture.

Quantity Withdrawn.—Whether all the fluid should be removed at once will be determined by the condition of the patient and the manner in which he bears the operation. As a general thing there is no harm in removing all the fluid, provided it is not evacuated too rapidly.

Position of Patient.—The patient should sit upright on the edge

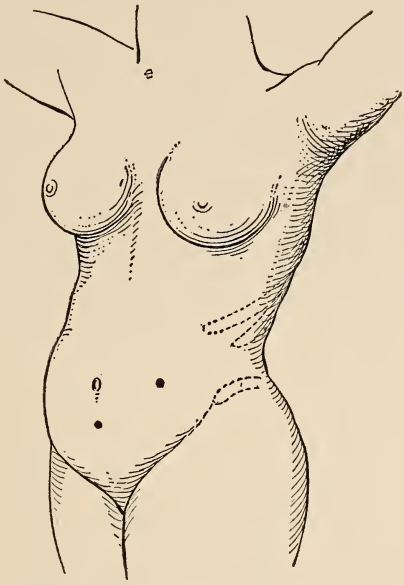


FIG. 270.—Sites for aspiration of the peritoneal cavity.

FIG. 271.—Aspiration of the peritoneal cavity. First step, application of the abdominal binder.

of the bed, if possible, or, if unable to do this, he may lie propped up in a semirecumbent position so as to favor gravitation of the fluid to the lowest level of the peritoneal cavity. When the puncture is made in the linea semilunaris, the patient should lie upon the side.

Preparations.—*The bladder and bowels should always be empty before operation.* The abdominal wall is shaved and then scrubbed with soap and water, followed by alcohol and a final rinsing with a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The operator's hands should likewise be sterilized, and the trocar is to be boiled.

FIG. 272.—Aspiration of the peritoneal cavity. Second step, nicking the skin at the point of puncture.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia with ethyl chlorid, ether, ice and salt, or infiltration with a few drops of a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain may be used.

Technic.—A broad abdominal binder, or a Scultetus bandage with a central slit corresponding to the point where the trocar is to be introduced, is first fitted about the patient's abdomen (Fig. 271) and is to be tightened at intervals during the operation, so that uniform pressure may be applied while the fluid is flowing off and a sudden overfilling of the abdominal vessels with blood prevented. With a scalpel the skin is incised for a distance of 1/4 inch (6 mm.) at the spot chosen for the puncture (Fig. 272), and the trocar is slowly and steadily inserted, with the index finger held along the instrument as

a guide to the depth it is to enter, and to prevent it from being suddenly forced in too far (Fig. 273). As soon as it is judged that the peritoneal cavity has been reached, the trocar is withdrawn and the fluid is permitted to escape.

The fluid should be evacuated slowly, and, if it flows too freely, it is well to stop the flow at intervals by placing the finger over the end of the trocar, in order to allow the abdominal contents to adapt themselves to the changed conditions. If the stream is suddenly stopped by the intestines or omentum occluding the end of

Fig. 273.—Aspiration of the peritoneal cavity. Third step, showing the method of inserting the trocar.

the instrument, a slight turn of the cannula or a change in its position may be sufficient to relieve the obstruction; if not, it may be necessary to clear the lumen by passing a sterile probe through it. As the fluid is withdrawn, and the distention of the abdomen decreases, necessary support is given to the lax abdominal walls by drawing the binder tighter. Syncope may be thus avoided; should it occur, however, the escape of the fluid must be temporarily stopped by placing the finger over the end of the trocar and the patient's head must be lowered, care being taken to see that air does not enter the trocar while this is being done.

When fluid ceases to flow, the cannula is quickly removed and, if a large opening has been made by the trocar, the skin may be drawn

together by a subcutaneous stitch and the line of incision sealed with collodion and cotton. If there seems to be a good deal of oozing of fluid along the track of the trocar, however, a sterile gauze dressing, held in place with rubber adhesive plaster and changed as often as necessary, will be found more satisfactory. After the aspiration the patient should be kept in bed for at least twenty-four hours.

ASPIRATION OF THE TUNICA VAGINALIS.

This operation is employed in the cure of hydrocele. It consists in introducing an aspirating needle or trocar and cannula into the tunica vaginalis and removing the contained fluid. It may be performed simply to withdraw the hydrocitic fluid or as part of the radical cure by injection of carbolic acid. The former is rarely more than a palliative measure, as the fluid usually promptly recurs.

The treatment by a combination of aspiration and the injection of 95 per cent. carbolic acid is, however, successful in more than 80 per cent. of cases (Bevan). It is especially applicable to hydroceles with thin sacs; in the old, chronic cases with thick sacs it is not often successful.

The operation is practically without danger, if performed with proper technic and care is taken to prevent injury to the structures of the cord and the testicle. The latter usually lies posterior to the tumor,

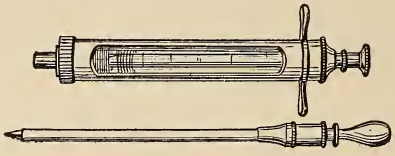


Fig. 274.—Trocar and syringe for aspirating and injecting a hydrocele.

though in rare cases it may be in front. Its position should always be ascertained first, if possible, by palpation and transillumination.

Instruments.—A medium size trocar and cannula, or a large aspirating needle, to which may be attached a small aspirating syringe, will be required (Fig. 274).

Site of Puncture.—The trocar should be introduced at the junction of the lower and middle thirds of the anterior surface of the scrotum, at a spot where visible blood-vessels are scarce.

Asepsis.—The usual aseptic precautions should be observed. The skin at the site of puncture should be shaved and then washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury.

The operator's hands should be prepared as for any operation, and the instruments boiled.

Anesthesia.—The spot of intended puncture may be cocainized

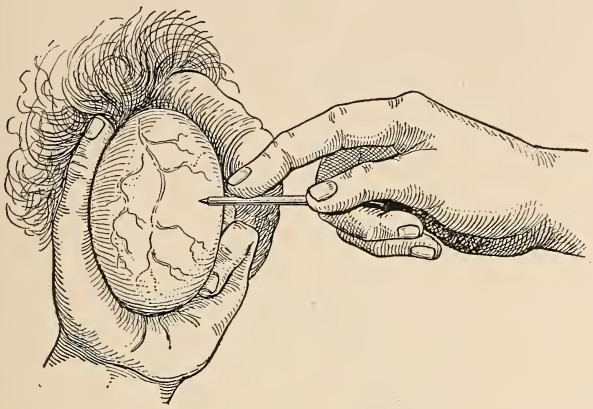


FIG. 275.—Aspirating a hydrocele. Showing the method of grasping the scrotum and the trocar being inserted.

by the injection of a few drops of a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain or frozen by ethyl chlorid.

Technic.—The operator places his left hand behind the scrotum and grasps the neck of the hydrocele between the thumb and forefinger,

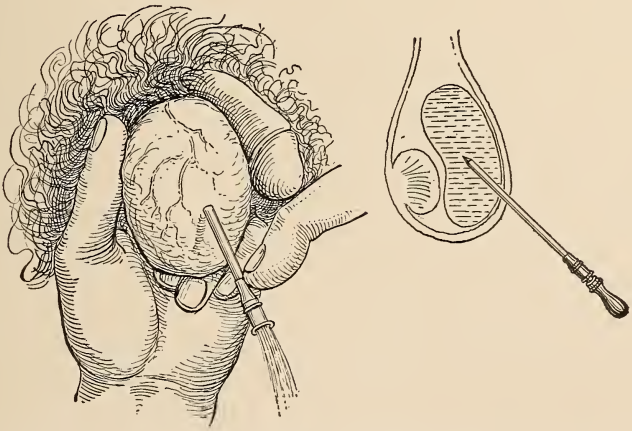


FIG. 276.—Aspirating a hydrocele. Showing the cannula in place.

thus making the tumor tense by compression. Holding the trocar and cannula in the right hand with the index finger placed about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) from its tip so as to prevent the instrument being introduced too deeply, the operator thrusts it into the tunica vaginalis

in an upward and backward direction (Fig. 275). As soon as the trocar enters the sac, indicated by a lack of resistance to its further progress, the point of the instrument is turned upward thus depressing the free end and the trocar is removed (Fig. 276). All the fluid is then allowed to escape, and, to make sure the sac is empty, the aspirator may be attached and suction employed.

The cannula is left in site and from 5 to 30 drops (0.30 to 1.90 c.c.) of 95 per cent. (deliquescent) carbolic acid, depending upon the size of the hydrocele, are injected through the cannula (Fig. 277). If a

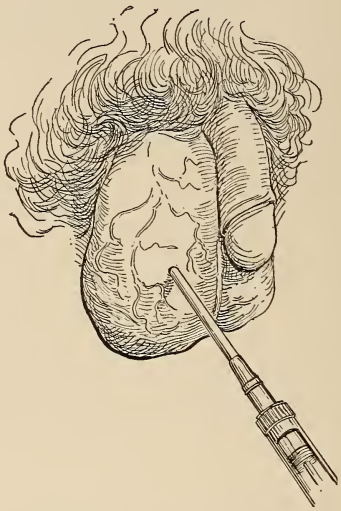


Fig. 277.—Method of injecting a hydrocele.

syringe cannot be attached directly to the cannula, the injection may be made by means of a hypodermic syringe and a long needle inserted through the cannula. The skin is then pinched up around the cannula, which is quickly removed, and the scrotum is manipulated so as to smear the acid over the whole interior. The puncture is then finally sealed with collodion and cotton.

The patient should remain in bed twenty-four to forty-eight hours after the operation with a supporting dressing applied to the scrotum. Some swelling follows the injection, but it usually subsides in a week or ten days. During this time the patient should wear a well-fitting suspensory.

ASPIRATION OF THE BLADDER.

Aspiration of the bladder will be considered under the section devoted to that organ (see page 639).

CHAPTER XI.

THE NOSE AND ACCESSORY SINUSES.

Anatomic Considerations.

The Nose.—For purposes of description the nose is divided into an external and an internal portion.

The external nose forms a prominence upon the face resembling a triangular pyramid, made up chiefly of bone and cartilage and covered with muscles and integument. The bony portion, or bridge, is composed of the nasal portions of the superior maxilla and the two nasal bones. The arch forming the forepart of each side of the nose is composed of two large lateral cartilages which converge to form the ridge and tip. These are supplemented usually by three smaller cartilages bound together by connective tissue, which aid in forming the wings or alæ.

The interior of the nose is divided by the septum into two chambers, or fossæ, narrow above and more expanded below. These open anteriorly by the anterior nares, two pear-shaped apertures measuring about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) vertically and 1/2 inch (1.2 cm.) transversely at their widest points. Posteriorly, the nasal fossæ communicate with the nasopharynx by two corresponding openings, the posterior nares. Each fossa also communicates with air spaces situated in the frontal, ethmoid, sphenoid, and superior maxillary bones. The roof is formed by the nasal bones, the cribriform plate of the ethmoid, and the body of the sphenoid. The floor, concave from side to side, is formed by the palatal process of the superior maxilla and the horizontal process of the palate bones. It separates the nose from the mouth. The inner wall, or septum, is formed posteriorly by the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid and the vomer, and anteriorly by the triangular cartilage. The septum is seldom exactly in the median line, but is usually more or less deflected, so that it is unusual to find the two fossæ of equal size. The outer walls of the nose are formed by the superior maxillary, the lachrymal, the ethmoid, the palate, and the sphenoid bones. They are very irregular, due to the presence of the turbinate bodies which project into the fossæ and partly divide them into three separate recesses, the superior, the middle, and the inferior meatus (Fig. 278).

The superior meatus lies between the superior and middle turbinates. It is narrow and groove-like, and is the smallest of the three. The orifices of the posterior ethmoidal cells open upon the upper and forepart of its outer wall.

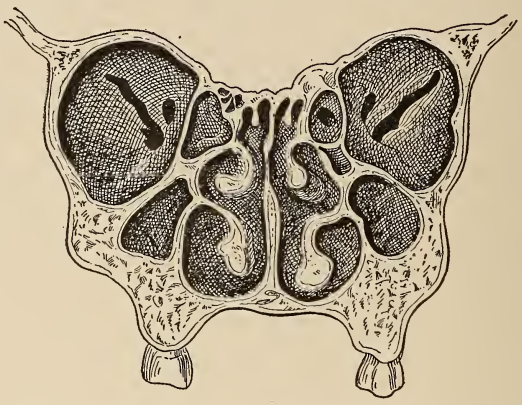


FIG. 278.—Transverse section of the nasal cavities. (After Zuckerkandl.)

The middle meatus lies between the middle and inferior turbinates, and is more capacious than the superior, extending along the posterior two-thirds of the outer wall of the nose. Opening into the middle meatus on the outer wall is a crescentic slit-like aperture, the hiatus

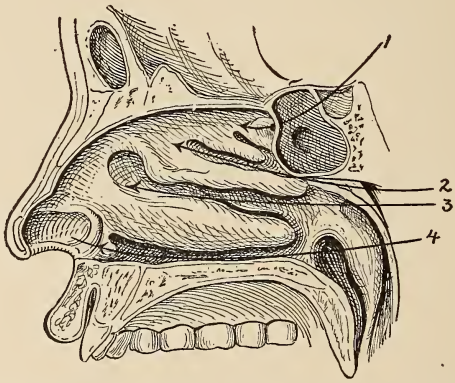


FIG. 279.—Showing the structures in the outer wall of the nasal cavity. 1, Opening of the sphenoidal sinus; 2, superior meatus; 3, middle meatus; 4, inferior meatus.

semilunaris. Just above it, and at times partly occluding this opening, is a protuberance, the bulla ethmoidalis, which marks the situation of the anterior ethmoidal cells. Upon the lateral wall of the middle meatus and extending from the hiatus semilunaris upward and for-

ward, is a curved groove bounded internally by the uncinate process of the ethmoid, known as the infundibulum. From this a closed duct leads into the frontal sinus. At the deepest portion of the infundibulum near the posterior end, is the opening of the maxillary sinus, and behind this at times is found an accessory opening. The anterior ethmoidal cells also open into the infundibulum on the upper part of the outer wall or else they communicate with the frontonasal duct.

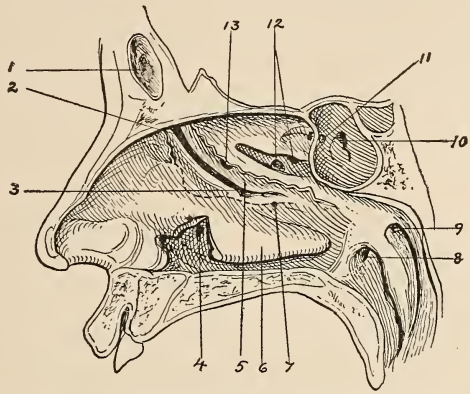


FIG. 280.—Lateral wall of the right nasal cavity showing the orifice of the accessory sinuses. (After Schultze and Stewart.) The dotted line indicates the outline of the middle turbinate, which has been removed to show the structures beneath. A portion of the inferior turbinate has also been removed.

1, Frontal sinus; 2, infundibulum; 3, hiatus semilunaris; 4, orifice of the nasal duct; 5, bulla ethmoidalis; 6, inferior turbinate; 7, accessory orifice of the maxillary sinus; 8, orifice of Eustachian tube; 9, fossa of Rosenmüller; 10, sphenoidal sinus; 11, orifice of the sphenoidal sinus; 12, orifice of the middle and posterior ethmoidal cells; 13, orifice of the anterior ethmoidal cells.

From the anatomical relation of these openings, it can be understood how readily infection of the maxillary sinus may follow a suppurative condition of the anterior ethmoidal cells or frontal sinus, discharges from the latter being very apt to find their way into the ostium of the maxillary sinus.

The inferior meatus, the largest of the three, lies between the inferior turbinate bone and the floor of the nasal cavity, extending along the entire length of the outer wall of the nose. The nasal duct, leading from the orbit, opens into the inferior meatus at the junction of the anterior third with the posterior two-thirds.

The mucous membrane lining the nasal cavity is continuous anteriorly with the integument and also with the mucous membrane of the pharynx, Eustachian tubes, and accessory sinuses. In the upper portion of the nose the mucous membrane is of the columnar

variety. In this region it is thin and closely bound to the periosteum and perichondrium beneath, and contains the endings of the olfactory nerves. The remainder of the nasal cavity is lined with ciliated epithelium. Over the inferior turbinates, the lower portion of the middle turbinates, and corresponding parts of the septum the mucous membrane is thick and very vascular, containing numerous thin-walled venous channels capable of becoming so enormously distended with blood that they may even occlude the nares. On the floor of the nose the mucous membrane again becomes thinned out.

The Accessory Sinuses.—Hollowed out of the bones surrounding the nasal fossæ are four cavities filled with air, known as the maxillary, frontal, ethmoid, and sphenoid sinuses. These accessory sinuses

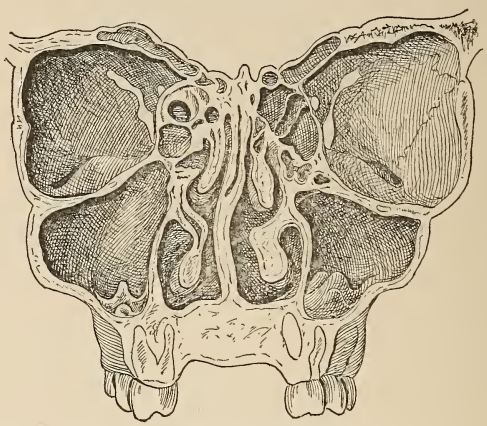


FIG. 281.—Cross-section of the maxillary sinuses, showing the close relation of the roots of the molar teeth to the floors of the sinuses. (After Zuckerkandl.)

are lined with a thin, pale, mucous membrane continuous with that of the meatus into which each sinus respectively opens. The function of the sinuses is to give resonance to the voice and at the same time add to the lightness of the skull.

The maxillary sinus or antrum of Highmore, lies to the outer side of the nasal fossa, occupying the greater portion of the superior maxillary bone. It is the largest of all the accessory sinuses. In shape it resembles a three-sided pyramid, with the apex at the zygomatic process of the maxilla, and the base directed toward the nasal cavity. The roof of the antrum is very thin and forms the floor of the orbit. The anterior wall is directed toward the face and corresponds to the canine fossa externally. The floor, which is directed toward the mouth, is formed by the alveolar margin and outer portion of the hard

palate. The roots of the molar teeth almost protrude through the floor into the antrum (Fig. 281), being often separated from the cavity by a thin shell of bone, or merely mucous membrane, so that ulceration of the teeth may readily lead to infection of the sinus. This anatomical arrangement is sometimes taken advantage of in draining the antrum, a tooth being extracted and the sinus opened through the alveolus.

Ordinarily, the antrum has a capacity of about 4 drams (15 c.c.), but its size varies greatly, and in the same individual the two sides are frequently disproportionate. The antrum communicates with the middle meatus by an ostium opening into the infundibulum, and thence through the hiatus semilunaris. This aperture cannot be seen until the middle turbinate has been removed. In a small percentage of cases an accessory ostium is found lying posterior to the main opening.

The Frontal Sinus.—The frontal sinuses are two air spaces separated from each other by a septum, lying between the tables of the frontal bone above the orbits. Each consists of a vertical portion passing upward on the forehead and a horizontal portion extending backward over the roof of the orbit. Their size is variable and they are often unequal through deflection of the septum to one side. Cases have been observed with one sinus entirely absent. The floor of the sinus forms by its external portion the roof of the orbit, and by its inner portion the roof of some of the anterior ethmoidal cells. The latter part of the floor is extremely thin, so that suppuration of the frontal sinus is liable to extend to the anterior ethmoidal cells. The posterior wall separates the sinus from the frontal lobes of the brain by an extremely thin plate of bone. The anterior wall is thick and is represented externally by the superciliary ridge. In the posterior portion of the floor of the sinus is the rounded or oval aperture leading into the infundibulum and thence to the middle meatus by means of the hiatus semilunaris.

The ethmoidal cells lie in the lateral masses of the ethmoid bone. These cells vary in size and number. They are divided into two sets, anterior and posterior. The anterior open into the middle meatus, generally by the infundibulum, while the posterior set open into the superior meatus. These cells are separated from the cranial cavity and orbit by extremely thin plates of bone.

The sphenoidal cells are situated in the body of the sphenoid bone close to the base of the skull. They are quadrilateral in shape and variable in size, and like the frontal sinuses they may be asymmetrical from deviation of the septum. The anterior wall looks downward and

forward and forms a part of the roof of the nasal cavity. The upper wall is very thin and separates the sinus from the cranial cavity. The cells communicate with the nasal cavity through an opening situated above and behind the superior turbinate.

Diagnostic Methods.

Prior to making an internal examination of the nasal cavities, careful notes should be taken of the patient's history and symptoms, for future reference, and a thorough inspection should be made of the external nose. On general inspection one should note the shape of the nose, with reference to signs of cretinism, syphilis, new growths, deviations, or deformities. The shape of the jaws also should be observed; likewise the presence or absence of any prominences or bulging in the neighborhood of the accessory sinuses; the presence or absence of enlarged cervical glands; the presence of excoriations, herpes, or crusts about the anterior nares and upper lip, as indications of nasal discharge. It should be ascertained whether the patient breathes through the mouth, and the patency of the nose should be tested by alternately closing each nostril with the finger while the patient breathes through the opposite one. The odor of the breath, the presence or absence of marked movement of the alæ nasi, or any sounds produced during nasal breathing, and the character of the voice should also be carefully noted. Having completed this preliminary examination, that of the interior of the nose should be proceeded with.

For a thorough examination of the nasal cavity and accessory sinuses five methods are available: namely, (1) inspection or rhinoscopy; (2) probing; (3) palpation; (4) transillumination; and (5) skiagraphy.

RHINOSCOPY.

Inspection of the interior of the nose may be performed by anterior and by posterior rhinoscopy. In anterior rhinoscopy the examination is made through the anterior nares with the aid of a suitable speculum and a strong light. Posterior rhinoscopy consists in an examination of the nose from within the pharynx by the aid of reflected light and a rhinoscopic or small laryngeal mirror. The former is simple and requires no great skill, but the latter is by no means an easy procedure for one unskilled, and at times requires considerable patience on the part of the operator to complete successfully and satisfactorily.

Illumination.—To obtain a good view of the interior of the nose, it is necessary to have the best illumination possible. Strong sunlight

may be utilized for anterior rhinoscopy, but it is not suitable for an examination of the posterior nares. Gas or electricity are the two forms of artificial light most used. With the former, a Welsbach burner fitted with a mica chimney over which is placed a Mackenzie condenser gives excellent illumination (Fig. 282). Electric light from a frosted lamp is also much used and has an advantage in that it does not give out much heat.

Whatever the form of light, it should be so arranged upon a suitable bracket that it may be raised, lowered, or turned from side to side

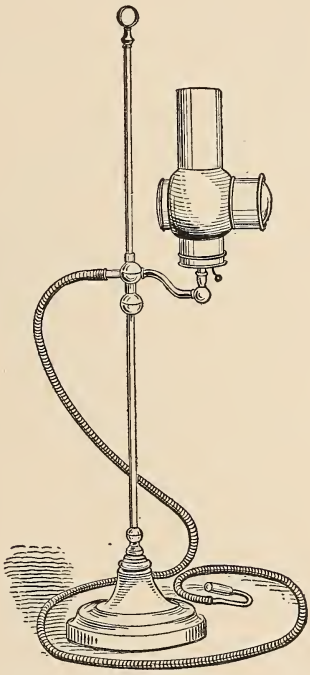


Fig. 282.—Gas lamp upon an adjustable stand fitted with a Mackenzie condenser.

without inconvenience to the operator. The light should be placed upon the patient's right, somewhat behind him, and about on a level with the tip of his ear.

Many operators prefer an illumination furnished by an electrical head light (Fig. 283). Such a light, with the current furnished from a small pocket storage battery will be found a great convenience outside the examining room.

Instruments.—In addition to a suitable light, there will be required: a concave head mirror, about 3 1/2 to 4 inches (8.9 to 10 cm.) in diameter, with a large central eye-hole, and secured to a soft leather head-

band by a ball-and-socket joint; a rhinoscopic mirror 1/2 inch (1 cm.) in diameter, set at an angle of 100 to 110 degrees with the shaft, which is curved to follow the line of the tongue; a Myles solid-blade nasal speculum; a Fraenkel tongue depressor; a White palate retractor; and a nasal applicator with a triangular-tipped shaft (Fig. 284).

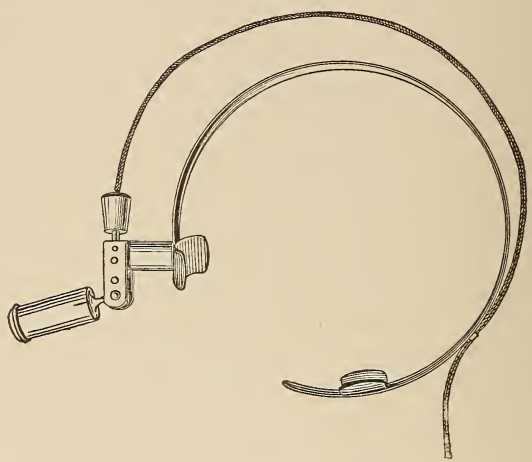


Fig. 283.—Electric head light.

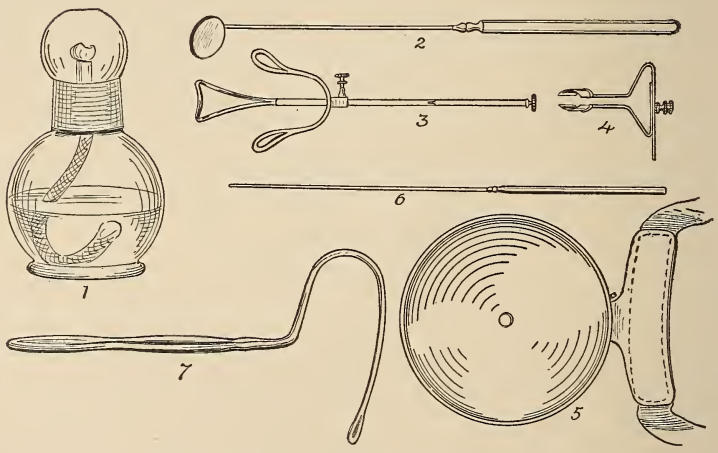


Fig. 284.—Instruments for rhinoscopy.
1, Alcohol lamp; 2, rhinoscopic mirror; 3, White's palate retractor; 4, Myles' nasal speculum; 5, head mirror; 6, nasal applicator; 7, Fraenkel's tongue depressor.

Asepsis.—Instruments, such as tongue depressors, specula, applicators, etc., may be sterilized by boiling. The rhinoscopic mirrors, however, which are soon destroyed by boiling, may be sterilized by

immersion in a solution of 1 to 20 carbolic acid and then wiped dry before using.

Position of the Patient.—The patient is seated upright upon a firm, straight-backed chair. The examiner sits, facing the patient, upon an adjustable seat, such as a piano stool, which may be readily raised or lowered according to the height of the patient.

Technic.—1. *Anterior Rhinoscopy.*—The operator adjusts the head mirror in such a way that the central opening is opposite his left eye and the light is reflected into the nostrils of the patient. The outline of the anterior nares is then brought into view, and the relative size of the two fossæ may be appreciated. Care should be taken to look for fissures, abrasions, or pimples on the inner surface of the

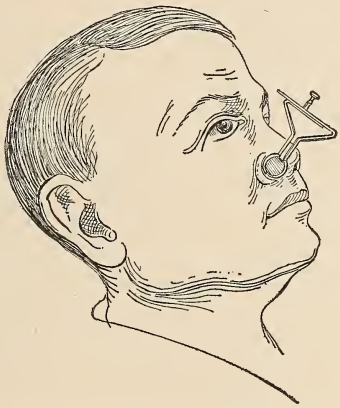


Fig. 285.—Myles' speculum in place.

vestibule of the nose, the pressure of which would make the introduction of the speculum painful, without preliminary cocainization. The speculum is then introduced with the blades closed, and, upon sliding them apart, the necessary amount of dilatation is obtained (Fig. 285).

The inspection of the cavity should proceed from before backward, the light being thrown into all recesses. By slightly elevating the tip of the nose, the floor of the nose, the inferior turbinate, and the inferior meatus are brought to view. In some cases where the nose is very broad or the inferior turbinate small or shrunken, it may even be possible to see as far back as the posterior wall of the nasopharynx. By bending the patient's head backward and raising the chin, the middle meatus and the middle turbinate may be seen; only when the latter has been removed, or is very much atrophied, however, is it possible to obtain a view of the apertures leading to the accessory

sinuses. Tilting the patient's head still further backward exposes to view the upper portion of the middle turbinate and the roof of the nose. Occasionally the opening of the sphenoidal sinus may be made out, but only in exceptional cases is it possible to see the superior turbinate.

By the direct application of cocain or adrenalin to the mucous membrane with cotton pledgets or by spraying, the membrane may be made to shrink and a more satisfactory view of the structures within the nose may be obtained. This is especially useful where the nasal cavity is narrow or the turbinates are hypertrophied.

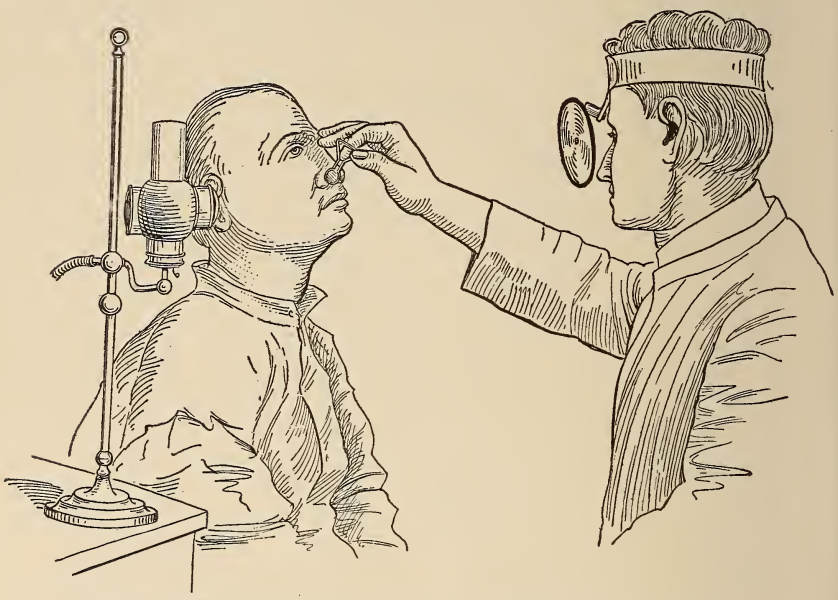


Fig. 286.—Showing the method of performing anterior rhinoscopy.

Secretions that may obstruct the view are gently wiped away by means of a cotton-wrapped nasal probe or applicator. The appearance and general condition of the mucous membrane are thus inspected and the apparent source of any discharge noted. In general, pus in the middle meatus means that the frontal or maxillary sinus or anterior ethmoidal cells are involved, as they all drain into this recess; while a discharge seen in the space between the middle turbinate and septum signifies infection of either the sphenoidal or posterior ethmoidal cells. To ascertain exactly which sinus is involved, frequently other aids to diagnosis, as probing, transillumination, or skiagraphy, must be employed.

The attention of the examiner is finally directed to the bony and cartilaginous portions of the nose. Deviations, ulcerations, perforations, and spurs of the septum, contracture or hypertrophy of the turbinal bodies, the presence of foreign bodies, the presence of new growths and their point of attachment, etc., etc., are in a general way the conditions to be looked for.

2. *Posterior Rhinoscopy.*—The operator adjusts the head mirror over his left eye so that the light is thrown upon the patient's mouth The patient is instructed to open the mouth, and a tongue depressor

Fig. 287.—First step in posterior rhinoscopy, inserting the tongue depressor.

held between the thumb and the index and middle fingers of the left hand, is inserted and passed over the dorsum of the tongue until the tip of the instrument rests just behind its arch. The tongue is then drawn downward and forward into the floor of the mouth (Fig. 287). If care be taken not to insert the depressor too far and to avoid pushing back on the tongue, gagging will be prevented. A mirror of suitable size is then warmed and, with the light reflected upon the posterior pharyngeal wall, the mirror is gently introduced into the mouth, lightly held between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand with its metal surface directed toward the tongue. The mirror should then be carefully carried back into the nasopharynx, avoiding the back

of the tongue, the palate, and uvula. After the instrument has entered the nasopharyngeal space, a clear view of the posterior ends of the turbinates and the other postnasal structures will be obtained by depressing the handle of the instrument slightly so that the upper border of the mirror lies behind the soft palate. At the same time, the handle of the mirror should be so held toward the left angle of the patient's mouth that illumination is not interfered with (Fig. 288).

It should be remembered that it is not possible to obtain a view of the whole postnasal space at one time, but, on turning the mirror in

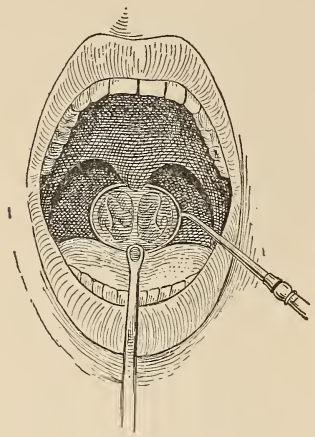


Fig. 288.

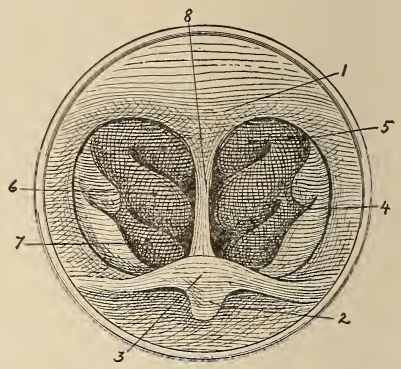


Fig. 289.

Fig. 288.—Showing the rhinoscopic mirror in place.

Fig. 289.—Posterior rhinoscopic image. 1, Roof of pharynx; 2, uvula; 3, soft palate; 4, opening of Eustachian tube; 5, superior turbinate; 6, middle turbinate; 7, inferior turbinate.

various directions by rotating its handle, different portions may be brought into view and the entire space may thus be examined in detail. By first holding the handle of the instrument well up, the vault of the pharynx will be brought into view, and the presence or absence of adenoids or other tumors may be ascertained. The pharyngeal vault is usually smooth and dome-shaped, but it may be almost completely filled up and show depressions and elevations depending on the size and condition of the pharyngeal tonsil. On depressing the handle slowly, the posterior nares may be examined in detail from above downward. In the median line is seen the septum; on either outer wall from above downward will be seen the ridge of the superior turbinate, with the superior meatus lying just below as a darkened depression. Below this will be observed the middle turbinate as a pinkish-white fusiform body, and, underlying

this, the middle meatus. The inferior turbinate appears just below this as a grayish-white body. Finally, by turning the mirror to either side, the orifices of the Eustachian tubes and the Eustachian cushions are brought to view. Care should be taken not to keep the mirror in the throat too long or the patient will be tired out; to make a complete examination, it is better to reinsert it more than once if necessary.

In some cases it may be almost an impossibility to make a satisfactory posterior rhinoscopic examination. This may be from the formation of the parts, as, for example, in the presence of a hard palate which extends so far back that there is no room for the mirror, or a

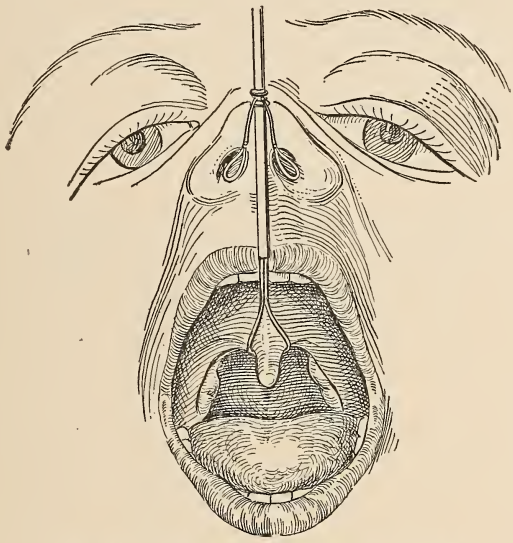


Fig. 290.—White's palate retractor in place.

broad soft palate with a long uvula, or it may be due to the presence of a growth in the nasopharynx. The most common obstacle, however, is the involuntary elevation of the soft palate on the introduction of the mirror, so that the view of the parts above is blocked. Instructing the patient to breathe through the nose with the mouth open, or to pronounce "en" with a strong nasal sound, often suffices to overcome this impediment. In other cases it will be necessary to use a palate retractor, such as White's. After applying cocain to the soft palate, the wire palate loop of the instrument is passed behind the soft palate and the stem of the instrument so adjusted as to draw the palate well forward into the desired position. The instrument is maintained in position by means of the wire loops which rest within the nose (Fig. 290).

INSPECTION OF THE NASOPHARYNX BY MEANS OF THE HAYS PHARYNGOSCOPE.

To overcome the difficulties encountered in examining the nasopharynx with a rhinoscopic mirror, Hays has devised an instrument made on the plan of an indirect view cystoscope, which he calls the the pharyngoscope.[1] With this instrument, the use of which requires none of the skill necessary for the ordinary posterior rhinoscopic examination, it is possible to obtain a clear picture of the nasopharynx, posterior nares, Eustachian tubes, as well as the larynx without the slightest discomfort to the patient. Furthermore, as the various structures are brought to view they may be inspected in a very systematic and thorough manner and with the avoidance of any haste, as the instrument, once inserted, may be left in place anywhere from five to twenty minutes, during which time its position need not be changed.

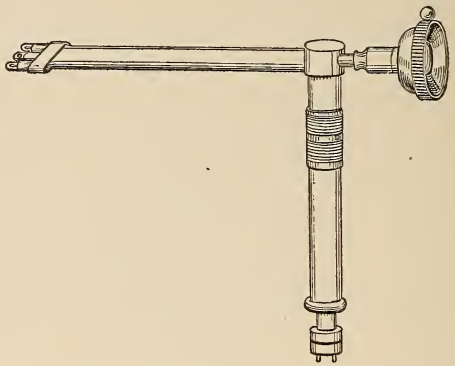


Fig. 291.—Hays' pharyngoscope.

Instruments.—All that is required is the pharyngoscope and a six-dry-cell battery. The instrument is made in the form of a tongue depressor, the horizontal portion of which is flattened in its inner two thirds, and in its widest part measures less than 5/8 inch (1.6 cm.). It contains a central tube into which a movable telescope fits and also two wire carriers. At the distal end of the instrument are placed two lamps, one on each side of the telescope. On the circumference of the eye-piece of the telescope is a small metal guide, to indicate the direction in which the lens is turned. The length of the horizontal portion including the telescope is about 8 inches (20 cm.). The vertical portion

[1]Harold Hays, in the *New York Medical Journal*, April 19, 1909, and the *Laryngoscope*, July, 1909.

or handle of the instrument contains the wires which carry the current to the lamps. Near its upper end is placed a switch for turning on or off the current (Fig. 291).

Asepsis.—The instrument must be thoroughly sterilized before use. This is accomplished by means of formalin vapor or by immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution followed by rinsing in sterile water. It will not stand boiling.

Anesthesia.—As a rule, anesthesia is not necessary. Should, however, gagging be induced by the instrument, the posterior pharyngeal wall may be cocainized.

Technic.—The patient is instructed to open his mouth widely and breathe quietly. The instrument is then inserted in the same

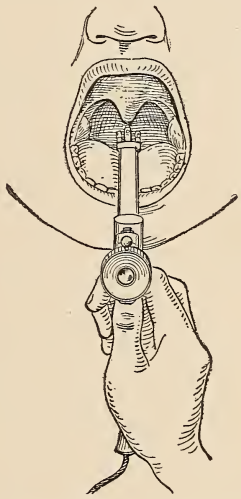


FIG. 292.—Showing the method of inserting the Hays' pharyngoscope (after Hays, *Am. Jour. Surg.*, May, 1909).

manner as a tongue depressor, until its distal end lies about 1/16 inch (1.5 mm.) from the pharyngeal wall (Fig. 292). The instrument is kept steadily in place upon the tongue, and the patient is told to close the mouth and breathe through his nose. This produces relaxation and consequent widening of the pharynx and nasopharynx. The light is then turned on, and the examiner inspects the structures as they are separately brought to view by rotation of the telescope. Thus with the lens pointing upward, as shown by the knob on the eye-piece, the pharyngeal vault is brought to view, and, by tilting the distal end of the instrument slightly upward, the posterior nares are viewed.

To inspect the region of the Eustachian tubes the lens is rotated to about 30 degrees to one side, when the orifices of the tubes, Rosenmüller's fossa, etc., will be clearly shown. By rotating the lens so that it points downward the epiglottis, larynx, and base of the tongue are similarly inspected.

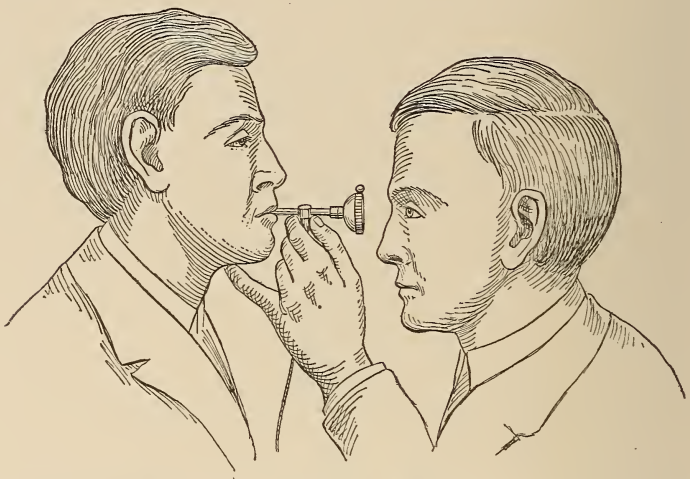


Fig. 293.—Showing the pharyngoscope in place with the examiner inspecting the post-nasal space.

PALPATION BY THE PROBE

The use of the probe is essential to a complete examination of the nose. By its aid the consistency and character of structures normally present, as well as the presence of abnormal growths, adhesions, foreign bodies, and the patency or obstruction of the openings leading to the accessory sinuses, may be determined.

Instruments.—The instruments comprise those necessary for a rhinoscopic examination; a nasal applicator; a nasal probe; and a sinus probe (Fig. 294).

The nasal probe should be of silver, fairly stiff, but at the same time capable of being bent. It should be about 8 inches (20 cm.) long, and set into its handle at an angle of 135°.

The instrument employed for examination of the sinuses must be of pure soft silver and fine in size so that it may be readily bent to any curve or be adjusted to the shape of the region through which it has to pass.

Anesthesia.—The nasal mucous membrane is very sensitive and manipulations are apt to produce sneezing, so that the parts should

be cocainized before the probe is employed. This may be done by applying a 4 per cent. solution on a small pledget of cotton, allowing sufficient time to elapse for the cocain to take effect before proceeding with the examination.

Position of Patient.—The positions of the patient and operator are the same as for a rhinoscopic examination.

Technic.—By means of a speculum and reflected light the interior of the nasal cavity is brought into view and is then systematically explored by the probe. Any growths are touched to determine their consistency, and masses that may be hidden beneath the turbinates and otherwise escape attention may be rolled into view by means of the probe. The condition of the mucous membrane, the presence and depth of ulcer-

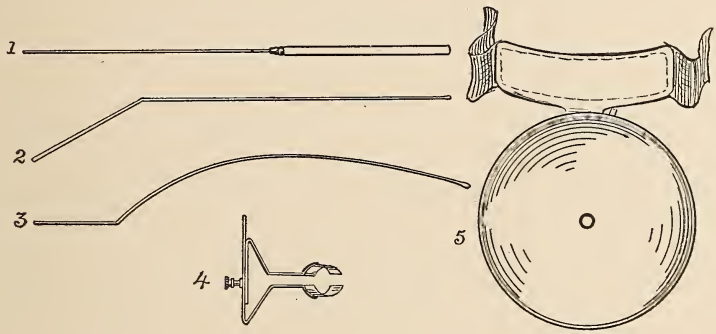


FIG. 294.—Instruments for palpating the interior of the nose.
1, Nasal applicator; 2, nasal probe; 3, sinus probe; 4, Myles' nasal speculum; 5, head mirror.

ations, etc., are ascertained. All recesses should be thoroughly examined, and especially the walls of the sinuses should be gently palpated for the presence of dead bone.

In the presence of symptoms or signs pointing to involvement of the sinuses, the sinus probe should be employed to determine their condition and the patency of their ostia as a preliminary to irrigation. On account of the anatomical arrangement of the parts, probing is practically limited to the sphenoidal and frontal sinuses unless the middle turbinate is first removed. Before making any exploration of these cavities, any visible pus or discharge is wiped away and the nasal cavity cleansed by syringing.

To enter the frontal sinus, the distal end of the probe, bent to an angle of 135°, is inserted within the middle meatus at the junction of the anterior third and posterior two-thirds of the middle turbinate. Its tip is made to hug the outer wall of the middle turbinate, and is

passed upward and forward through the hiatus and into the infundibulum. By depressing the handle of the instrument, its tip will traverse the infundibulum and pass through the ostium frontale unless some obstruction exists. Gentleness should be employed in this maneuver, and no attempt should be made to force the instrument if any obstruction to its passage exists.

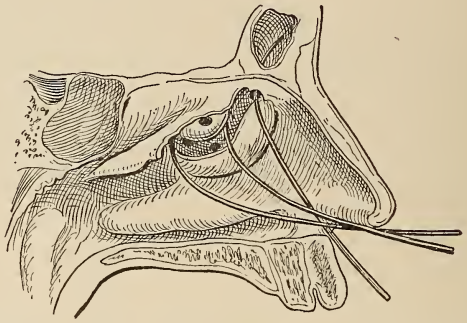


Fig. 295.—Showing the steps in the passage of a probe into the frontal sinus.

To enter the sphenoidal sinus, the end of the probe is bent to a slight curve and is passed into the nose with its convexity upward. The tip of the instrument is made to traverse the roof of the nasal fossa until it meets the resistance of the anterior sphenoidal wall. The probe is then moved gently about in various directions until its

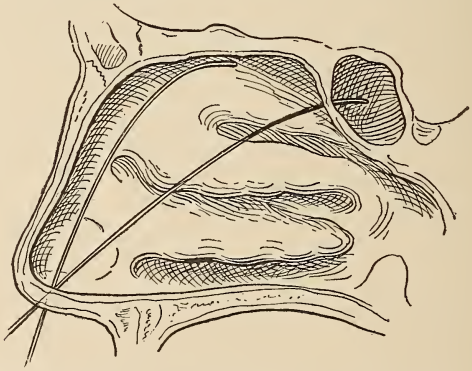


Fig. 296.—Showing the steps in the passage of a probe into the sphenoidal sinus.

point enters the cavity of the sinus, which is then carefully explored.

In either case, when the probing is employed as a preliminary to irrigation, and the particular sinus has been successfully entered by the probe, if the shape of the irrigator be made to correspond to that of the probe it will be of great help in the introduction of the former.

DIGITAL PALPATION.

Palpation of the posterior nares by means of the finger is employed to confirm the diagnosis made by posterior rhinoscopy, or to obtain information as to the condition of these parts when the latter is not possible. No instruments are needed, except in the case of unruly children, when a mouth gag may be required. While digital palpation is a rather unpleasant procedure for the patient, if performed rapidly and skilfully many of the disagreeable factors may be obviated.

Preparation.—The hands should always be well scrubbed before making such an examination.

Technic.—It is well to first explain to the patient what is intended to be done. The patient is then directed to open the mouth widely.

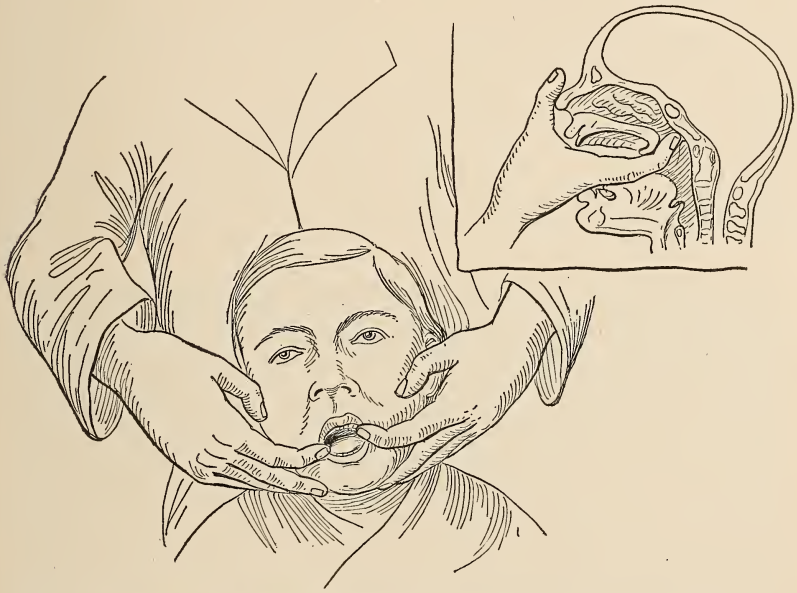


FIG. 297.—Showing the method of palpating the postnasal space with the finger.

The left hand of the operator supports the patient's head, and at the same time with the thumb or index finger of the same hand he forces the cheek in between the opened jaws to prevent the examining finger from being bitten (Fig. 297). The index finger of the right hand is then gently but quickly introduced into the mouth and is hooked around the posterior border of the soft palate into the nasopharynx, and the parts are palpated. In this way the presence of adenoids, hypertrophies of the posterior ends of the turbinates, or other growths are readily recognized.

TRANSILLUMINATION.

Transillumination is a valuable aid for determining the condition of the frontal or maxillary sinuses. Its use in connection with other sinuses is futile. This method of diagnosis becomes possible from the fact that the air spaces, when in a healthy state, transmit light through their thin walls, which power is diminished when pus is present or the mucous membrane lining the cavity is much thickened.

Transillumination is not an infallible method, by any means, the chief causes of error being imperfect symmetry of the two sides, due either to a difference in the size of the two sinuses or to a variation in the thickness of the bony walls. Another source of error occurs when involvement of both sides of a pair of sinuses exists, and there is therefore nothing upon which to base a comparison. The method is of greatest service in the diagnosis of empyema of the antrum and of the frontal sinus. In the latter it is not so valuable or nearly so reliable an aid as in the former, for the size of the two frontal sinuses and the thickness in the individual bones are apt to vary.

Apparatus.—There are many lamps adapted to the purpose of transillumination, Coakley's being an excellent model. This consists of a handle of nonconducting material containing a lamp and

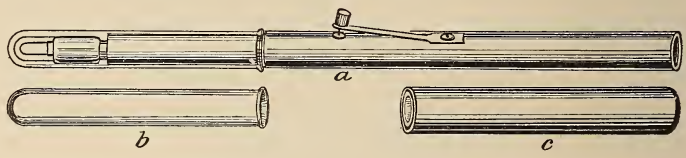


Fig. 298.—Coakleys' transilluminator.

a, Apparatus assembled for transillumination of the antrum; *b*, glass hood for use in transillumination of the antrum; *c*, hood for use in transillumination of the frontal sinus.

glass hood for transillumination of the maxillary sinus, and a second hood to fit over the lamp in place of the glass one, for use about the frontal sinus (Fig. 298). The lamps are of about four or five candle-power, the electricity being supplied by a small battery or the street current. In employing the latter, a rheostat, by which the amount of current may be regulated, will be necessary.

Technic.—1. *Transillumination of the Frontal Sinus.*—The patient is seated in a dark room. The black hood is drawn over the transilluminator and the instrument is placed beneath the orbital portion of the brow at the nasal side. The light is turned on and the sinus is clearly illuminated, the operator noting the effect. The opposite side

is treated in the same manner, and the two are compared as to the intensity with which the light is transmitted.

Through a large sinus in a normal condition the light is trans-

FIG. 299.—Transillumination effect in a normal right frontal sinus.

FIG. 300.—Transillumination effect in a diseased left frontal sinus.

mitted with greater intensity than through a small cavity, or through one with thickening of the bony walls or the lining membrane, or one complicated by the presence of pus or a tumor.

2. *Transillumination of the Antrum.*—The patient is seated in a darkened room, any dental plates or obturators that might obstruct

FIG. 301.—Transillumination effect in the normal case. (After Harmon Smith, in Keen's Surgery.)

FIG. 302.—Transillumination effect in sinusitis of the right antrum. (After Harmon Smith, in Keen's Surgery.)

the light having been previously removed. The electric lamp, covered with the glass hood, is then introduced into the mouth, and the patient is instructed to close his lips firmly. Under normal conditions when the

lamp is lighted, the cheeks, up to the infraorbital margins, and both pupils are clearly illuminated. If one antrum contains pus or a solid tumor, the malar region of that side will appear darker and an absence of illumination of the pupil will be noted. The transmission of light will also be interfered with in the presence of thickened walls or lining mucous membrane.

SKIAGRAPHY.

The X-ray gives important information in regard to the frontal, ethmoid, and maxillary sinuses, and, when possible, it should be regularly employed as one of the aids in diagnosis. To be of any value, however, it must be applied by a competent radiographer. It is especially valuable in diseases of the frontal sinuses. In a healthy condition, the outlines of the sinuses are clear and distinct; while in diseased conditions the outlines are not so clearly indicated and the whole area of the sinus appears cloudy. In addition the X-ray will show the size and shape of the frontal sinus and the position of the septum, all of which are important points in making a decision as to method of operating, should it be necessary. To determine the size of a sinus it is necessary to take two plates, one in profile and the other full face.

Therapeutic Measures.

NASAL DOUCHING.

Nasal douching is employed for the purpose of cleansing the nasal cavity prior to operative procedures or for the purpose of removing secretions or crusts preparatory to the application of other remedies. It must always be used with due precautions, for there is considerable risk where fluid is forced into the nose in bulk that some of it will enter the Eustachian tubes and set up an otitis media. For this reason only small quantities of solution are employed at a time, and the injection should be made without any force. If one side of the nose is obstructed, the solution should enter by that nostril and escape from the more open one. As a further precaution, any excess of fluid remaining after the irrigation should be allowed to flow from the nose or be drawn into the mouth and expectorated, but not blown from the nose for fear of forcing some into the Eustachian tubes. The patient should furthermore be instructed to remain indoors for at least half an hour after each irrigation to avoid catching cold. For the patient's own use nasal spraying is a safer method to employ, and, if it becomes

necessary to prescribe a nasal douche, the surgeon should carefully instruct the patient in the proper method of its use.

Apparatus.—An ordinary douche bag with a capacity of about a pint (473.11 c.c.), fitted with a nasal nozzle, forms a simple and effect-

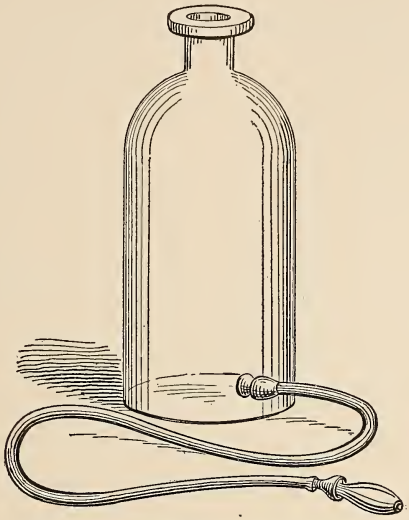


FIG. 303.—Nasal douche apparatus.

ive douche. There are a number of douches especially made for the nose, a convenient type for use with large quantities of solution being shown in Fig. 303. It consists of a pint bottle to the bottom of which is attached a rubber tube fitted with a nasal nozzle. The small glass

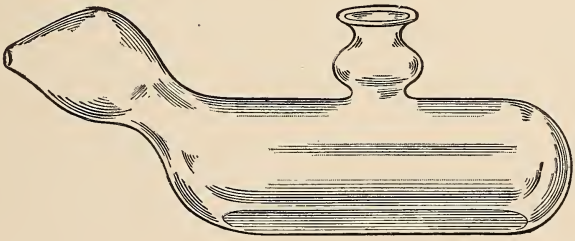


FIG. 304.—The Bermingham nasal douche.

douche (Fig. 304), known as the "Bermingham douche," is useful where the cleansing is to be carried out by the patient.

Solutions.—For ordinary cleansing purposes the solution should be alkaline and as unirritating as possible.

One of the following formulæ may be employed.

℞. Sodii bicarbonatis,
Sodii biboratis, āā. dr. i (3.75 c.c.)
Acidi carbolici, ♏.xv (0.92 c.c.)
Glycerini, oz. i (30 c.c.)
Aquæ, q. s. ad. Oi (473.11 c.c.) M.

℞. Sodii bicarbonatis, dr. i (3.75 c.c.)
Acidi salicylici, gr. x (0.65 gm.)
Aquæ, q. s. ad. Oi (473.11 c.c.) M.

℞. Sodii bicarbonatis,
Sodii biboratis,
Sodii chloridi, āā. oz. i (30 c.c.) M.
Sig. A teaspoonful to a pint of warm water.

Some of the proprietary preparations, such as listerin, borolyptol, glycothymolin, alkalol, etc., will be found of value where an antiseptic action is also desired. They may be used in the proportion of dr. ss to dr. i (1.9 to 3.75 c.c.) to the ounce (30 c.c.) of water. When there is an offensive discharge, the following may be employed.

℞. Potassii permanganatis, gr. i–ii (0.06–0.13 gm.)
Aquæ, ad. oz. i (30 c.c.) M.

Temperature.—All solutions should be used warm, at a temperature of about 100° F.

Quantity.—For ordinary cleansing purposes or for the removal of free secretion from the nose, a few ounces of solution are sufficient. When hard crusts are abundant, however, it sometimes requires a pint (473.11 c.c.) of solution, or more, to loosen them and effect their removal.

Rapidity of Flow.—The solution should be injected with only sufficient force to permit its return from the opposite nostril in a slow, gentle stream—never under high pressure. Accordingly, the reservoir should be raised only 2 to 3 inches (5 to 7 c.c.) above the level of the nose.

Technic.—The patient stands with his head bent slightly forward over a basin or sink, with a towel or napkin placed about his neck for protection of the clothes. The douche nozzle, held in the right hand, is then inserted into one nostril with sufficient firmness to prevent the solution from escaping, while with the left hand the reservoir is raised a few inches so that the solution enters the nose in a weak stream. The patient is directed to breathe through his mouth and to avoid swallowing during the lavage. In this way, when the patient's head is bent forward, the fluid does not escape into the pharynx, but

passes through one nostril back into the nasopharynx and out through the other nostril (Fig. 305). When no obstruction exists in either side, half the solution may be injected through one nostril and the remainder in the reverse direction through the other.

With the small glass douche cup the technic is very simple. The patient inserts the nozzle of the partially filled instrument into

FIG. 305.—Showing the method of using the nasal douche. (The reservoir should be a little lower than shown here.)

one nostril, holding the finger over the side opening. He then throws his head well back and removes his finger from the opening, which allows the solution to flow through the nose into the mouth, whence it is expectorated. Each nostril in turn may be thus irrigated.

THE NASAL SYRINGE.

The nasal syringe is employed mainly for cleansing the nose. The solution may be injected either from the front, returning through the opposite nostril, after the manner of the nasal douche, or the nose may be washed out from behind forward. By the latter method the

postnasal space may be more effectually cleansed of sticky secretions and mucus than by injecting the solution from the front. The same precautions should be observed in using the syringe as have been mentioned for the use of the douche.

Instruments.—A syringe with a capacity of 1 to 2 ounces (30 to

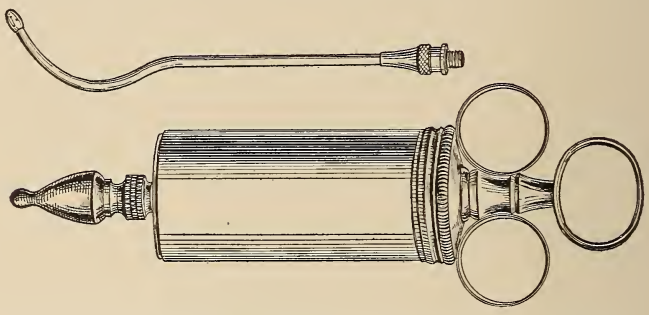


FIG. 306.—Nasal syringe with anterior and posterior nasal tips.

59 c.c.), made of metal or hard rubber, will be required. It should be supplied with a straight nozzle for injection through the anterior nares, and with one bent up almost at right angles for cleansing the postnasal space (Fig. 306).

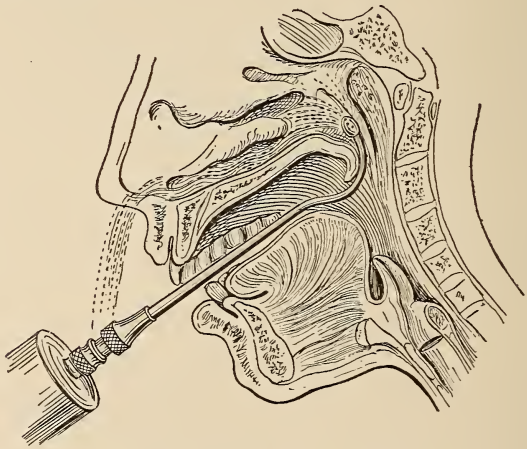


FIG. 307.—Showing the method of syringing the nose from behind.

Solution.—Any of the cleansing solutions mentioned on page 296 may be employed. They should always be used warm.

Technic.—In employing the nasal syringe much the same technic is followed as with the douche, observing due care against injecting the solution with too much force, etc. The nozzle of the

syringe is inserted into one nostril and the patient is directed to keep his head bent well forward over a receptacle and to breathe through the mouth. The solution is then slowly injected and returns through the opposite nostril. The irrigation should be so regulated that the fluid returns as quickly as it enters, thus avoiding any undue accumulation in the postnasal space and lessening the dangers of infecting the Eustachian tubes.

To syringe from the posterior nares, a tongue depressor is introduced into the mouth to keep the tongue out of the way, while the distal end of the postnasal tip is introduced behind the soft palate. The patient is then directed to hold his head well forward, the fluid is slowly injected and escapes from the anterior nares, flushing out the postnasal space and nose from behind forward (Fig. 307). On account of the sensitive condition of the parts in some cases it may be necessary to cocainize the pharynx and soft palate before the syringing can be properly performed.

THE NASAL SPRAY.

Sprays or atomizers are utilized either for cleansing purposes or for the application of remedies to the nasal mucous membrane when it is not necessary to confine the solution to one particular spot.

Apparatus.—The simplest form of atomizer usually proves most satisfactory, and is less liable to get out of order. The Whitall Tatum

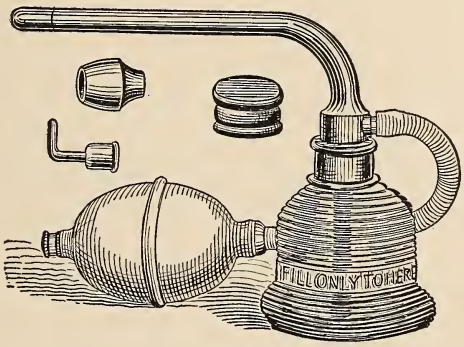


Fig. 308.—Whitall Tatum atomizer.

(Fig. 308), the Davidson, or the De Vilbiss (Fig. 309) are all good atomizers. The latter is especially serviceable, and the spray part, being of metal, may be readily sterilized. The instrument should be provided with a straight nasal tip as well as with a postnasal tip. The air current may be supplied by a rubber compression bulb or by a

compressed air apparatus (Fig. 310). The latter will be found more convenient for office work.

For cleansing purposes, the spray should be rather coarser than that employed for medication. Oily preparations may be sprayed

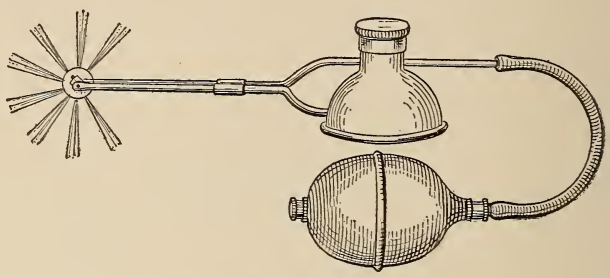


Fig. 309.—De Vilbiss atomizer.

with an ordinary atomizer provided with an oil tip, or a special oil nebulizer may be employed.

Solutions.—Any of the cleansing solutions mentioned on page 296 may be employed in a spray.

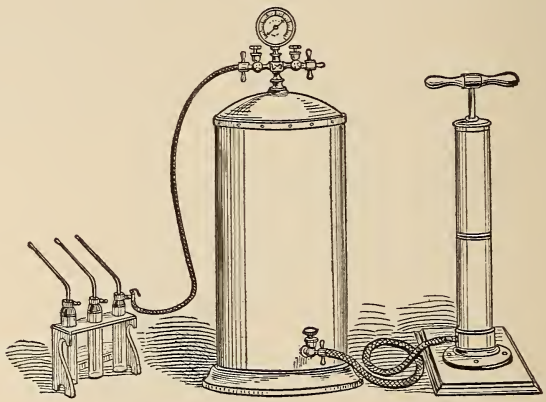


Fig. 310.—Compressed-air atomizing apparatus.

When a mild antiseptic action is desired, the solutions given on page 296 or the following may be used:

℞. Acidi carbolici,	gr. v (0.32 gm.)	
Glycerini,	dr. i (3.75 c.c.)	
Aquæ,	q. s. ad. oz. i (30 c.c.)	M.
℞. Resorcini,	gr. iii (0.19 c.c.)	
Glycerini,	dr. i (3.75 c.c.)	
Aquæ,	q. s. ad. oz. i (30 c.c.)	M.

Astringent solutions, for purposes of lessening secretions, include such drugs as zinc sulphocarbolate, zinc sulphate, copper sulphate, alum, tannic acid, silver nitrate, etc., used in the strength of 5 gr. (0.32 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.) of water.

Oily preparations, with albolene or benzoinol as a base, are frequently used after the application of aqueous solutions for the purpose of protecting the parts, the oil being deposited upon the mucous membrane in a thin coat. Usually eucalyptol, camphor, menthol, or thymol are combined with the oil in the proportion of 2 to 5 gr. (0.13 to 0.32 gm.) or more to the ounce (30 c.c.) for the sedative effect, as in the following:

℞. Eucalyptol,	♏ x (0.60 c.c.)
Menthol,	gr. v (0.32 gm.)
Benzoinol,	oz. i (30 c.c.) M.
℞. Thymol,	
Menthol,	āā gr. ii (0.13 gm.)
Albolene,	oz. i (30 c.c.) M.
℞. Camphoræ.	
Menthol,	āā gr. v (0.32 gm.)
Albolene,	oz. i (30 c.c.) M.

When a stimulating action is indicated, the proportion of the above drugs may be increased.

Technic.—The tip of the nose is gently raised and the nozzle of the spray is inserted into the vestibule. To avoid injuring the mucous membrane of the septum or turbinates, care should be taken to keep the long axis of the spray and that of the nose in the same line. By alternately compressing and relaxing the rubber bulb, the solution is forced into the nose in a spray. The direction of the spray should be altered from time to time by raising or lowering the proximal end of the atomizer.

For spraying from the posterior nares, the same technic is employed as with the postnasal syringe (page 299).

THE DIRECT APPLICATION OF REMEDIES.

This method is employed for the application of strong solutions or solid caustics, or when it is desired to confine the action of the remedy to any particular area.

Instruments.—For the application of solutions, a nasal applicator, the tip of which is wound with a thin layer of cotton, is employed.

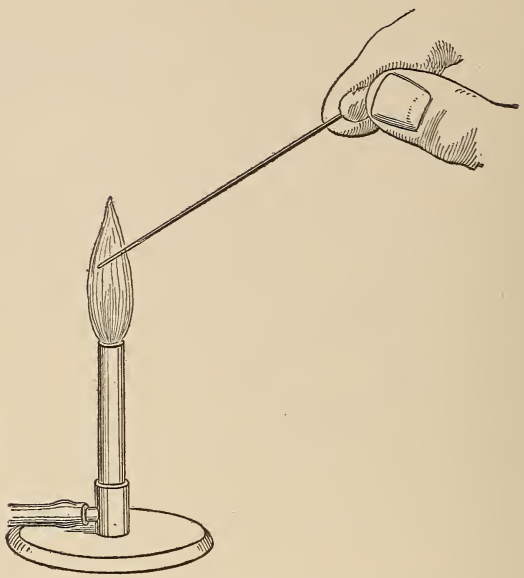


FIG. 311.—Fusing chromic acid on a probe. First step, heating the probe. (Gleason.)

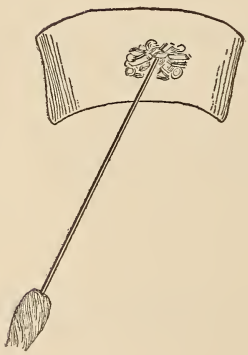


FIG. 312.

FIG. 313.

FIG. 314.

FIG. 312.—Fusing chromic acid on a probe. Second step, dipping the hot probe in the crystals. (Gleason.)

FIG. 313.—Fusing chromic acid on a probe. Third step, heating the crystals into a bead. (Gleason.)

FIG. 314.—Fusing chromic acid on probe. Showing the finished probe. (Gleason.)

Solid caustics, as chromic acid, silver nitrate, etc., are best applied fused upon a probe or applicator.

Chromic acid may be prepared for application as follows: The probe tip is brought to a red heat over an alcohol flame (Fig. 311) and is then dipped into crystals of the acid (Fig. 312). Upon withdrawing the probe a few crystals will be found adhering to its point. This mass is then heated in the flame until the crystals begin to melt (Fig. 313), and, upon cooling, they recrystallize in the form of a bead on the end of the instrument (Fig. 314). If it is desired to employ silver nitrate in this way, a few of the crystals should be melted in a crucible. The tip of a probe or applicator is then dipped into this liquid mass until sufficient of the caustic adheres, and, as soon as it solidifies, it is ready for use. In applying chromic acid a second cotton-wrapped applicator, saturated with a solution of bicarbonate of soda—30 gr. (1.95 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.)—should be at hand to neutralize any excess of acid.

Anesthesia.—The parts should be cocainized by the application of a 4 per cent. solution of cocain.

Technic.—The mucous membrane is well cleansed, and, when using caustics, the area to be treated is rendered as dry as possible to prevent the caustic spreading over too large a surface. The application is then made to the diseased spot under guidance of the nasal speculum, being careful not to allow the applicator to touch any other points. If acid is employed, any excess is immediately neutralized with the strong solution of bicarbonate of soda by means of an applicator previously prepared and in readiness.

INSUFFLATIONS.

Various powders with sedative or antiseptic properties are applied to the nasal mucous membrane by means of a special powder blower. Finely powdered starch, stearate of zinc, or powdered acacia is usually employed as a base, in the proportion of two parts to one of the active principle. Nosophen, aristol, europhen, iodoform, iodal, etc., are remedies frequently applied in this manner. Morphin and cocain in small doses may be combined with these powders when indicated.

Instruments.—The insufflator shown in Fig. 315 or that shown in Fig. 316 may be used. The former is made on the same principle as a hand spray, but with larger tubes. It, however, requires the use of both hands in its manipulation. The latter instrument consists of a rubber compression bulb to which is fitted a vulcanized

rubber tube. Into this latter fits the nasal tip, the proximal end of which is made in the form of a scoop for taking up the powder. When the instrument is filled, a sudden compression of the bulb forces air through the apparatus, blowing the powder out in front of it. This

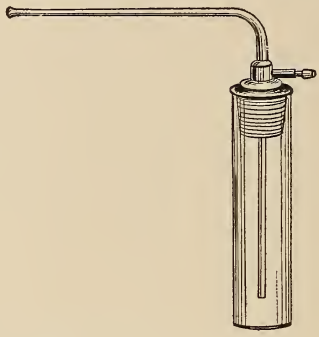


Fig. 315.—Powder blower.

instrument may be manipulated with one hand, and the quantity of powder used can be accurately measured. Insufflators are supplied with straight tips for the anterior nares, and with curved tips for making applications to the posterior nares.

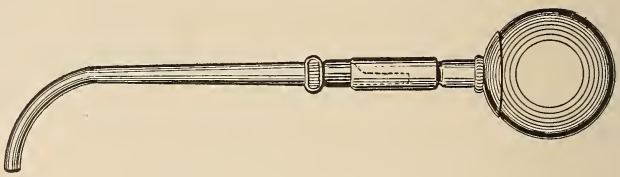


Fig. 316.—Scoop powder blower.

For the patient's use, an insufflator such as Sajous' (Fig. 317) will be found convenient. It consists of a small glass receptacle with an opening for pouring in the powder, to one end of which a rubber

Fig. 317.—Sajous' powder blower.

mouthpiece is attached, the other end being rounded off to fit into the nostril.

Technic.—With a suitable powder blower, the application of powders is very simple. The instrument being properly filled, the

tip is inserted into the nostril or up behind the soft palate, accordingly as to whether the anterior or the posterior portions of the nose are to be medicated, and, with two or three rapid compressions of the bulb, the powder is forced out of the instrument and is deposited upon the mucous membrane.

When the insufflation is performed by the mouth, as with the Sajous insufflator, the tip is inserted into the nostril, the instrument being held with one finger over the opening in the bottom of the receptacle to make it air-tight. The mouth-piece is held between the lips and, by one or more gentle puffs, the powder is blown out upon the parts to be medicated.

LAVAGE OF THE ACCESSORY SINUSES.

This procedure is employed as a means of diagnosis and for the purpose of removing purulent secretions and for cleansing the mucous lining in the treatment of suppuration involving the accessory sinuses. It is performed by means of a suitable cannula introduced into the sinus through the natural or an artificial opening. Treatment by irrigation is most successful in the early cases of empyema; in those complicated by granulation tissue or dead bone, it is not so satisfactory. It should, however, be given a trial in any case before the more radical surgical measures are considered.

Solutions Used.—Normal saline solution (salt ℥i (3.9 gm.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.) of boiled water), a saturated solution of boric acid, or any of the cleansing solutions mentioned on page 296 may be used.

Temperature.—All solutions employed in irrigating should be warm —at about 100° F.

Lavage of the Maxillary Sinus.—It is rarely possible to insert a probe or cannula into the maxillary sinus through its normal opening, on account of its hidden position and the fact that the opening is directed somewhat downward and forward from the infundibulum. If an accessory opening be present, however, it may be possible to irrigate through it, but in most cases an artificial opening will have to be made through the inferior turbinate, or through the alveolus after removal of the second bicuspid, or the first or second molar tooth. The former approach should be chosen when the teeth are sound and the origin of infection is apparently from the nose. When a decayed tooth is the source of trouble and the tooth is beyond saving, puncture through the alveolus is justifiable.

Instruments.—For irrigating through the inferior meatus, an antrum

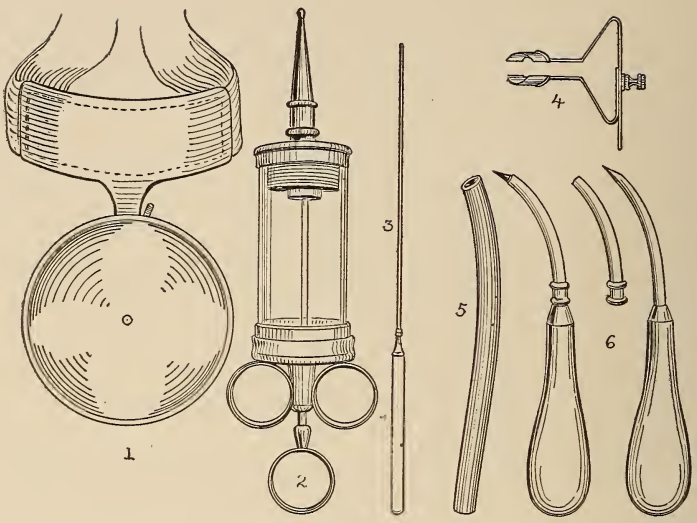


FIG. 318.—Instruments for lavage of the maxillary sinus through a puncture in the inferior meatus.
1, Head mirror; 2, syringe; 3, applicator; 4, Myles' nasal speculum; 5, tubing to connect the syringe and cannula; 6, Myles' trocar and cannula.

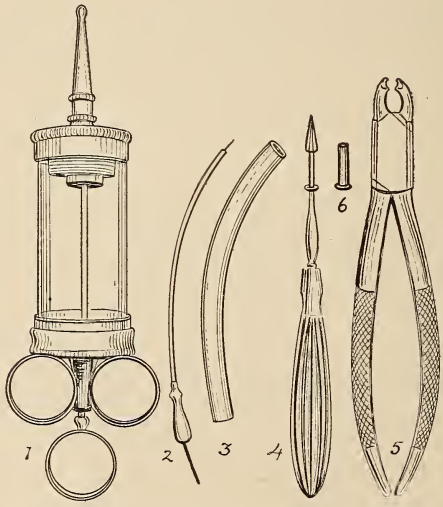


FIG. 319.—Instruments for lavage of the antrum through the alveolus.
1, Syringe; 2, cannula; 3, tubing to connect the syringe to the cannula; 4, alveolar drill; 5, drainage-tube; 6, tooth-extracting forceps.

trocar and cannula and small syringe will be required. For opening through the alveolus, there should be provided suitable tooth-pulling forceps, an alveolar drill, a syringe, and a silver or aluminum tube of the same caliber as the drill, 1/2 to 3/4 inch (1.3 to 1.9 mm.) long and provided with a flange to prevent its slipping into the antrum.

Anesthesia.—For puncture of the antrum through the inferior meatus, local anesthesia by the application of a 4 per cent. solution of cocain on a pledget of cotton twenty minutes before will be sufficient.

Nitrous oxid anesthesia should be employed for the extraction of a tooth and drilling through the alveolus.

Technic.—1. *Through the Inferior Meatus.*—Having obtained a good view of the interior of the nose by the aid of a speculum and reflected light, a point is selected just beneath the inferior turbinate

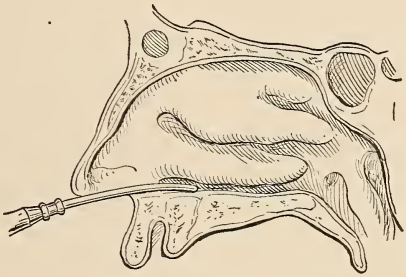


FIG. 320.—Showing the method of puncturing the antrum through the inferior meatus.

and about 1/2 inch (1.2 cm.) behind its anterior extremity, and the trocar is introduced, pushing it in an outward, backward, and slightly upward direction, through the thin bony wall into the antrum (Fig. 320). The relation of the sinus to the orbit should be borne in mind when making this puncture and care taken not to enter the latter; this may happen if the puncture be made through the middle meatus (Fig. 321). As soon as the antrum has been entered, the trocar is withdrawn. The syringe is then attached to the cannula by a piece of rubber tubing, and the cavity thoroughly irrigated. Any secretion is thus forced out through the normal opening of the sinus and appears in the middle meatus. During the irrigation the head should be held downward over a receptacle, so that the solution will readily escape from the nose.

The sinus should be irrigated daily until the discharge ceases, employing stronger or more stimulating solutions if they seem indicated. Usually there is no great difficulty in reinserting the cannula through

the opening each day, if it is provided with a blunt obturator. The parts should be cocainized, however, before each irrigation.

2. *Through the Alveolus.*—The puncture is made through the

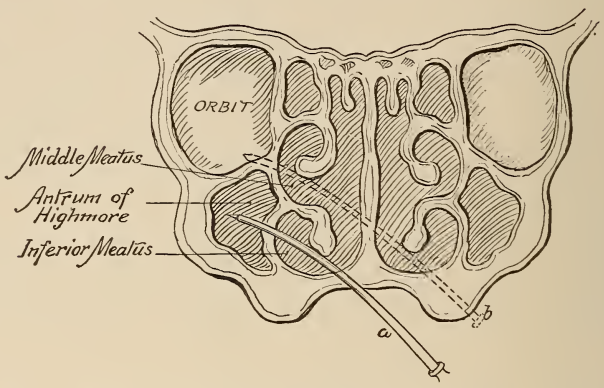


FIG. 321.—Transverse section through the nose, showing cannula. *a*, Entering antrum through inferior meatus; and *b*, cannula entering the orbit through the middle meatus. (After Coffin.)

socket of the second bicuspid or the inner root socket of the first or second molar tooth (Fig. 322). The affected tooth is first removed, and the drill inserted by a boring motion, as follows: For the first molar, in an upward and slightly inward direction; for the second

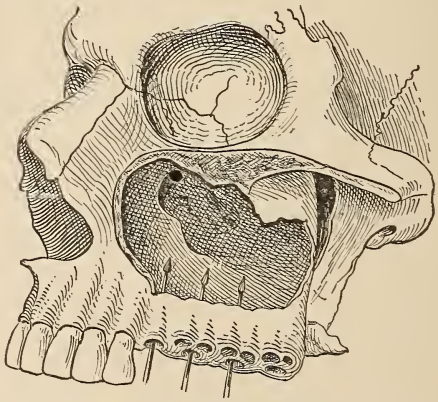


FIG. 322.—Showing drills entering the antrum through the alveolus. (After Schultze and Stewart).

molar, in an upward, slightly inward and forward direction; and for the second bicuspid, upward, slightly inward, and backward. Unless the approximate position of the antrum is kept in mind and the drill

inserted accordingly, the cavity may be missed. As soon as the antrum has been entered the cavity is irrigated by means of a syringe, the solution escaping into the nose through the natural opening. To aid its escape, the patient's head should be inclined forward. Finally, a metal drainage-tube of the proper size is inserted, through which subsequent irrigations may be made.

The irrigations may be performed once or twice a day, and later they may be carried out by the patient himself. When the discharge ceases, the irrigations are discontinued for a day or two, and, if there is no recurrence of the trouble, the tube is then removed and the opening allowed to close.

Lavage of the Frontal Sinus.—The frontal sinus may be irrigated by means of a small cannula introduced through the fronto-nasal duct.

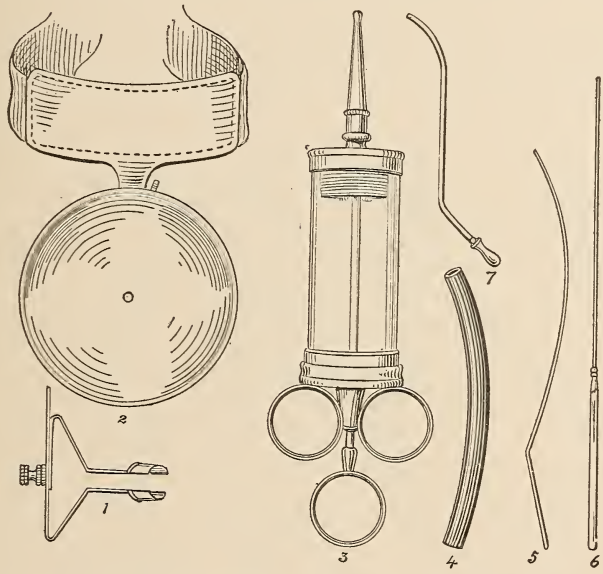


Fig. 323.—Instruments for lavage of the frontal sinus.
1, Myles' nasal speculum; 2, head mirror; 3, syringe; 4, tubing to connect the syringe to cannula; 5, sinus probe; 6, nasal applicator; 7, sinus cannula.

In some cases, where the opening is occluded by the middle turbinate or an enlarged bulla ethmoidalis, the middle turbinate will have to be removed before the attempt is successful. Another difficulty presents itself in the close proximity of the anterior ethmoidal cells, and the cannula may enter this group instead of the frontal sinus.

Instruments.—A head mirror, a speculum, a nasal applicator, a sinus probe, a pure soft-silver sinus cannula that may be easily bent to

accommodate itself to any curve—such as Hartmann's—and a syringe that can be attached by means of rubber tubing will be required (Fig. 323).

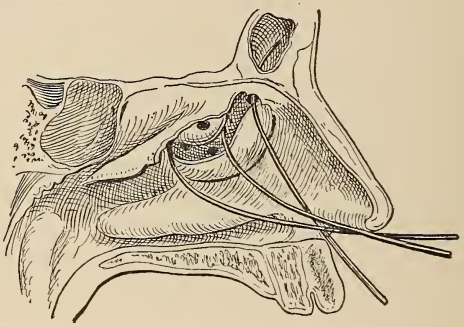


FIG. 324.—Showing the steps of passing a cannula into the frontal sinus.

Anesthesia.—A 4 per cent. solution of cocain should be applied to the middle meatus for twenty minutes before operation.

Technic.—The cannula, bent at its distal end to an angle of about

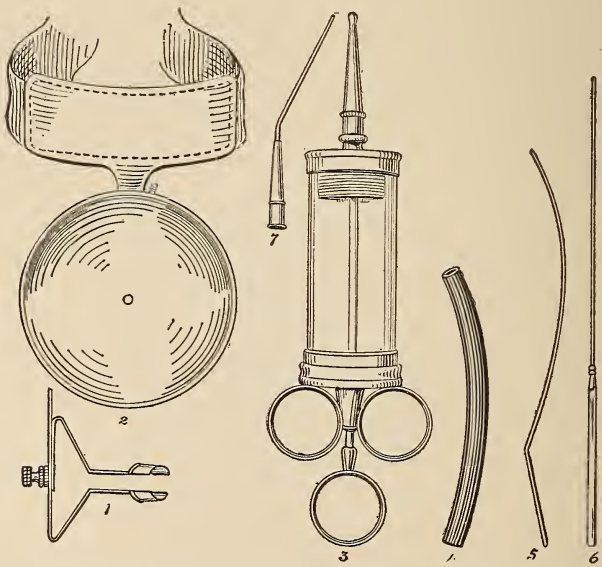


FIG. 325.—Instruments for lavage of the sphenoidal sinus.
1, Myles' nasal speculum; 2, head mirror; 3, syringe; 4, tubing to connect the syringe to cannula; 5, sinus probe; 6, nasal applicator; 7, sinus cannula.

135 degrees, is introduced into the middle meatus at the junction of the anterior third with the posterior two-thirds. The tip of the cannula is passed into the hiatus and then forward and upward into the infun-

dibulum, and thence still upward and slightly forward into the sinus, through the fronto-nasal duct (Fig. 324). The syringe is then attached to the cannula and the sinus is gently irrigated with one of the warm cleansing solutions previously mentioned.

Lavage of the Sphenoidal Sinus.—Instruments.—A head mirror, a nasal speculum, a nasal applicator, a sinus probe, a sphenoidal curved cannula, and a syringe with rubber-tubing attachment will be required (Fig. 325).

Anesthesia.—The region is anesthetized with a 4 per cent. solution of cocain.

Technic.—The cannula is passed into the nasal cavity with the convexity upward. The point of the instrument is inserted between the middle turbinate and the septum, and should follow the roof of the nose until it meets the resistance of the anterior wall of the sphenoidal sinus. By gently moving the instrument up and down and from side to side, its tip will eventually be made to enter the sphenoidal opening (Fig. 326).

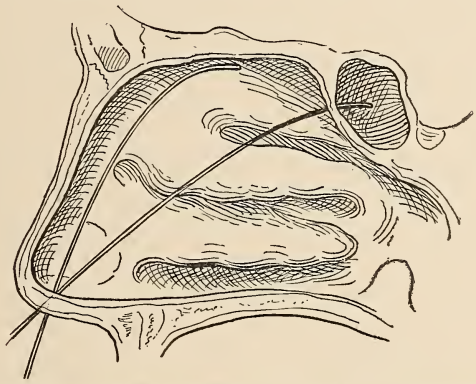


Fig. 326.—Showing the steps of passing a cannula into the sphenoidal sinus.

The depth of the sinus is only about 3/8 inch (1.5 cm.), and care should be taken not to force the instrument through its thin walls. The syringe is attached to the cannula by rubber tubing, and the cavity thoroughly but gently irrigated. During this procedure the patient's head should be bent forward and the mouth opened to prevent the backward flow of the returning solution.

PASSIVE HYPEREMIA IN DISEASES OF THE NOSE AND ACCESSORY SINUSES.

The beneficial effects of passive hyperemia in the treatment of inflammations have already been discussed in Chapter VII, to which

section the reader is referred for a full consideration of the subject and the technic of its application. According to Ballenger,[1] the indications for passive hyperemia in rhinology are: (1) in the first five days of acute rhinitis; (2) in the first five days of acute sinusitis; (3) in the first five days of acute inflammation of the pharyngeal tonsils; (4) in acute tubal catarrh; (5) in chronic purulent inflammation of the sinuses.

The hyperemia may be obtained by means of a neck-band (as described on page 184) or by a special form of suction apparatus. The latter is more efficacious in the presence of a purulent discharge, the vacuum serving to remove secretions as well as to induce a beneficial hyperemia; but it must be used with great care not to induce a harmful degree of hyperemia. The apparatus shown in Fig. 169 or one provided with glass tips which fit into the nostrils may be used. With the apparatus applied to the nose, the air is slowly rarefied while the patient swallows. This causes the soft palate to rise up in apposition with the posterior wall of the pharynx and to close the naso-pharynx and nose from the pharynx, and a hyperemia of the mucous membrane of naso-pharynx, nose, accessory sinuses, and Eustachian tubes is thus induced.

TAMPONING THE NOSE FOR THE CONTROL OF HEMORRHAGE.

Nasal hemorrhage may be the result of trauma or operations or may be due to ulcerations, new growths, cardiac disease, certain constitutional diseases and infections, diseases of the blood, etc. Usually the bleeding ceases spontaneously or under simple treatment which aims at lessening the congestion of the nasal mucous membrane and favoring the formation of a clot, such as the application of cold over the nose and at the base of the neck, removing tight collars, etc., from the neck, having the patient remain quietly in an upright position with the head erect, at the same time forbidding any attempts at blowing the nose.

If these simple measures are insufficient, a speculum should be introduced and the interior of the nose inspected for the source of the hemorrhage. If the bleeding point is within reach, it should be cauterized by touching with the electro-cautery or with silver nitrate; or else some styptic solution, as peroxid of hydrogen, a watery solution of tannic acid, or a 1 to 1000 solution of adrenalin chlorid should be applied to the part upon a pledget of cotton. It may be impossible to locate the bleeding point, or the hemorrhage may continue in spite

[1]Ballenger: "Diseases of the Nose, Throat, and Ear."

of such treatment, so that in the presence of a profuse hemorrhage it becomes necessary to pack the nose. In the majority of cases tamponage through the anterior nares will be sufficient; in others, the bleeding may occur posteriorly and the posterior nares as well will have to be packed.

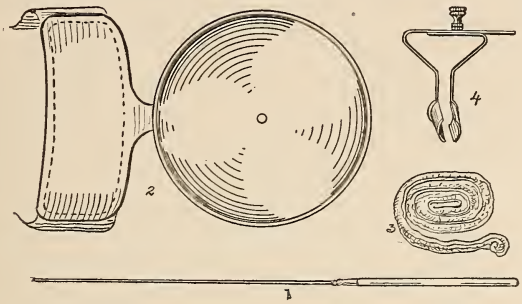


FIG. 327.—Instruments for tamponing the anterior nares.
1, Nasal applicator; 2, head mirror; 3, narrow strip of gauze; 4, Myles' nasal speculum.

Instruments, etc.—To pack the nose from the front, a head mirror, a nasal speculum, a nasal applicator, and a single narrow strip of gauze should be provided (Fig. 327).

For packing the posterior nares a tampon about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) long and 1/2 inch (1 cm.) thick, should be prepared by rolling a strip of gauze to the required size, to the center of which a heavy

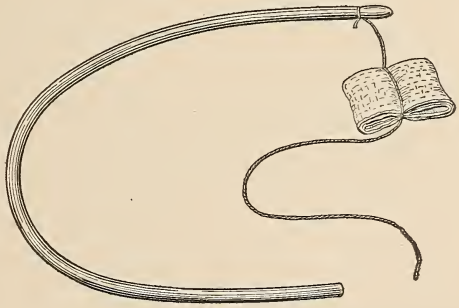


FIG. 328.—Catheter for drawing plug into the posterior nares.

piece of silk thread is tied, the two ends, which should each be about 18 inches (45 cm.) long, being left free. For the purpose of adjusting the tampon in place, a rubber urethral catheter of a size that will readily pass through the nose into the mouth (Fig. 328), or an instrument especially made for this purpose, known as Bellocq's

sound (Fig. 329), will be necessary. This latter consists of a curved metal cannula containing a concealed steel spring, which is protruded into the pharynx and mouth when the cannula is in place in the nose, and to the end of which the tampon is then attached.

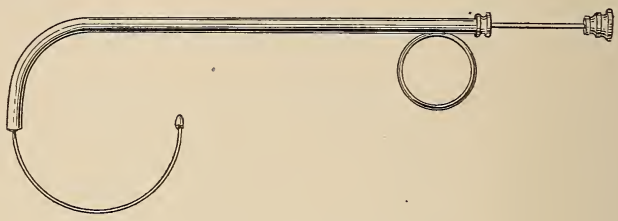


Fig. 329.—Bellocq's cannula.

Technic (*Anterior Nares*).—In tamponing the anterior nares a speculum is inserted in the nose and a good view of the interior obtained. A narrow strip of gauze, saturated with peroxid of hydrogen, is then gently carried well back into the nose by means of an applicator, and by forcing in more gauze the whole nose is tamponed and the hemor-

Fig. 330.—Showing the method of tamponing the anterior nares.

rhage controlled (Fig. 330). This packing should always be removed within forty-eight hours. Only a single strip of gauze should be used, as it will be less difficult to remove and there is no danger of leaving any behind in the nose. As a further aid in removal, the end of the gauze should be left within easy reach.

(2) (*Posterior Nares*).—The tampon, as already described, should be well lubricated with vaselin and placed near at hand. The Bellocq cannula is passed along the floor of the nose on the bleeding side until

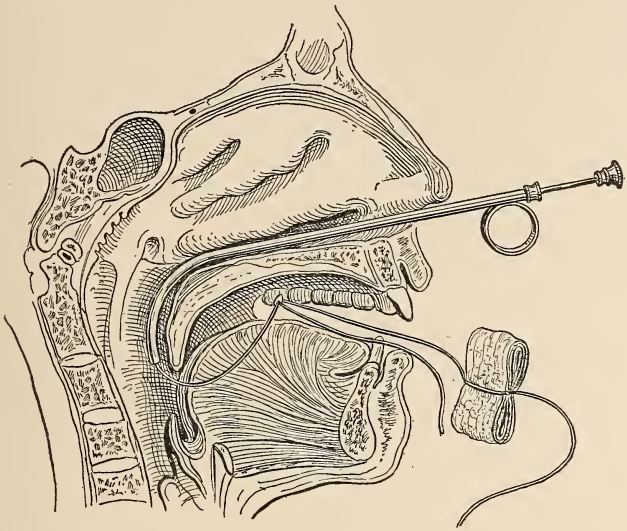


FIG. 331.—Showing the method of drawing a plug into the posterior nares by the aid of Bellocq's cannula.

FIG. 332.—The posterior nasal plug in place.

its tip appears back of the soft palate. The steel spring is pushed home and is protruded into the mouth. The tampon is then tied to the end of the carrier by one of the strings (Fig. 331), the spring

returned within the cannula, and the latter removed from the nose and with it the end of the tampon spring. By pulling upon the string, assisted by a finger placed in the naso-pharynx, the tampon is drawn tightly into the posterior nares (Fig. 332). In addition it is well to pack the anterior nares with gauze or a plug of cotton, over which is tied the string protruding from the nose. The other end of the string, which is left in place for the purpose of removing the pack, is brought out through the mouth and loosely fastened to the ear. When an ordinary catheter is employed in place of a special sound, precisely the same technic is followed.

The packing should be removed in twenty-four hours, since, if left in longer, it is apt to set up an irritation and may lead to infection of the Eustachian tube. To remove the pack, the string tied to the anterior tampon is first cut free. The naso-pharynx should be cleaned of blood-clots, and the whole region sprayed with adrenalin chlorid to cause the tissues to shrink as much as possible. The posterior plug is then removed by gentle traction upon the string.

CHAPTER XII.

THE EAR.

Anatomic Considerations.

The ear is divided into three portions, the external ear, the middle ear, and the internal ear. For the purposes of this work, a consideration of the anatomy of the external ear and the middle ear will suffice.

The external ear comprises the auricle or pinna and the external auditory canal.

The auricle is the irregular shaped mass composed of fibrocartilage, covered by perichondrium, connective tissue, and skin, which projects from the side of the head. It has the function of collecting sounds and reflecting them to the external auditory meatus. The central

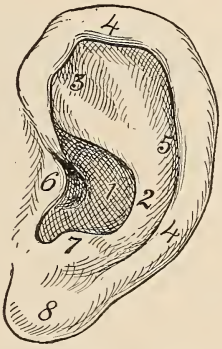


FIG. 333.—The left auricle.
1, Concha; 2, antihelix; 3, fossa of antihelix; 4, helix; 5, fossa of the helix; 6, tragus; 7, antitragus; 8, lobule.

depressed portion, resembling a shell in form, is called the concha. It is bounded by a rim, the antihelix, which runs at first backward and then upward and forward, finally dividing into two arms. The space between these two arms is known as the fossa of the antihelix. From the front portion of the concha extends a ridge, known as the helix, at first in a forward and upward direction and then around the circumference of the auricle toward the lowest portion. The space between the antihelix and the helix is designated the fossa of the helix.

The small backward projection lying in front of the concha is called the tragus, and the small tubercle at the lowest portion of the antihelix, the antitragus. The lobule of the ear is the lowest soft pendulous portion of the auricle.

The external auditory canal extends from the concha to the drum membrane. It serves the purpose of conveying sounds collected by the auricle to the drum membrane. The canal measures about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) in length, the floor being slightly longer than the roof on account of the oblique position of the drum membrane. Its outer third is composed of cartilage, a continuation of that forming the auricle, while the inner two-thirds has a bony framework. The interior is lined with thin skin, which contains hair follicles and

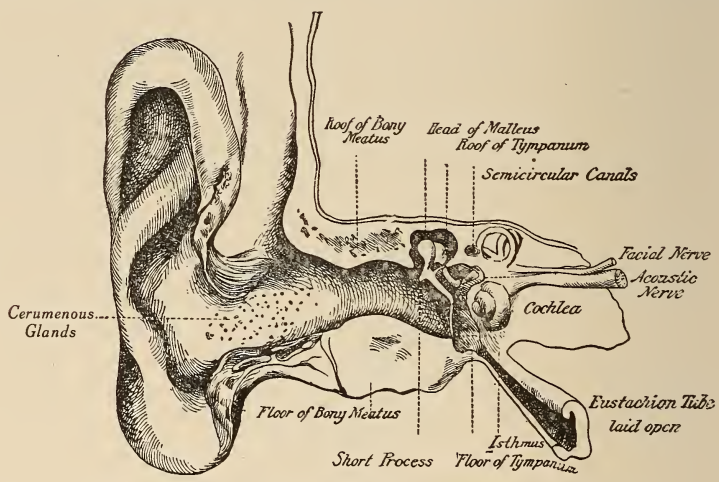


FIG. 334.—Front view of the organ of hearing. (Randall.)

cerumenous glands, the latter being most abundant at the junction of the cartilaginous and bony portions. The widest portion of the canal is near the external orifice, the narrowest portion near the center, and, beyond this, as it nears the drum membrane, the canal expands again. The direction of the canal traced from without inward is at first upward and forward, then backward, and finally forward and downward. By traction, however, in an upward, backward, and outward direction upon the auricle the canal may be straightened out and its interior viewed.

The middle ear, or tympanum, is an irregularly shaped cavity situated in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, between the external and the internal ear. The interior of the cavity is lined with a

delicate mucous membrane. Within it lie the chain of ossicles, the tympanic muscles, and the chorda tympani nerve.

The tympanic cavity is bounded above by the roof, consisting of a thin plate of bone, the tegmen tympani et antri, which separates it from the dura; below by the floor which corresponds to the jugular fossa; by an outer wall composed of the drum membrane and the ring of bone into which it is inserted; by an inner wall which is contiguous to the labryinth, and presents an oval window closed by the stapes and a round window closed by membrane; by an anterior wall which separates the tympanic cavity from the carotid canal, and in the upper part of which is the tympanic orifice of the Eustachian tube and above this the canal for the tensor tympani muscle; and by a posterior wall, in the upper part of which lies the narrow opening leading into the mastoid antrum, the *aditus ad antrum.* The cavity is practically divided by the chain of ossicles into two portions, an upper epitympanic space or attic, and a lower cavity or atrium.

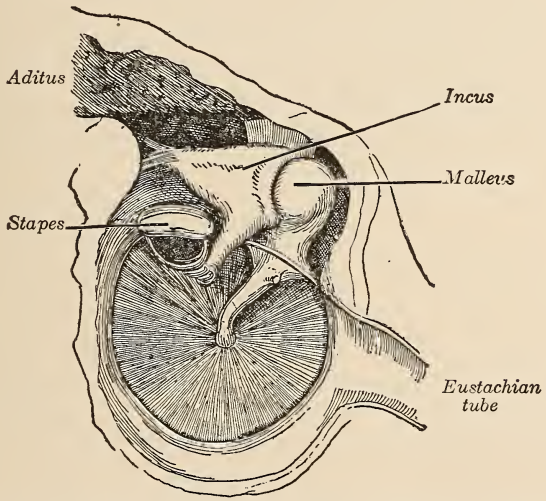


FIG. 335.—Anatomy of the ossicles. (Pyle's "Personal Hygiene.")

The ossicles are three small bones, the malleus or hammer, the incus or anvil, and the stapes or stirrup, joined together by movable articulations, and forming an osseus chain between the drum membrane and the labyrinth. They are held in place by the attachment of the malleus to the membrana tympani and of the stapes to the oval window, and in addition by various ligaments extending between them and the bony walls. Their function is to convey sound waves from the drum to the labyrinth.

The malleus consists of an oval head which extends upward and articulates with the incus, a neck, a manubrium or handle which extends downward and is embedded in the membrana tympani, a short process, which extends outward from the neck to the membrana tympani and pushes the latter outward before it, and a long process which passes anteriorly into the Glaserian fissure.

The incus is the middle ossicle. It consists of a body which articulates with the malleus, a short horizontal process which extends to the posterior wall where it is attached by ligaments, and a long process which extends downward and outward and then near its tip sharply inward to articulate by its orbicular process with the head of the stapes.

The stapes consists of a broad base or foot-piece which fits into the oval window, to the membrane of which it is attached, two crura or legs, and a head which articulates with the orbicular process of the incus.

The membrana tympani, or ear-drum, is a thin elastic membrane stretched obliquely downward and inward across the inner end of the external auditory canal forming the outer wall of the tympanic cavity. The drum membrane is made up of three layers, an outer one of skin, a middle of fibrous tissue, and an inner formed by the reflection of the mucous membrane of the middle ear. It serves the purpose of receiving and transmitting sound waves to the chain of ossicles.

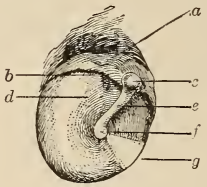


Fig. 336.—Outer surface of the right membrana tympani. (Gleason.)
a, Membrana flaccida; *b*, posterior fold; *c*, short process; *d*, incudostapedial articulation; *e*, malleus handle; *f*, umbo; *g*, cone of light.

It may be described as elliptical in outline, and of a pearly gray color, but at the same time translucent. Its outer surface is concave and normally smooth. By the aid of a speculum and suitable illumination there will be noted a whitish ridge formed by the handle of the malleus, running from a tubercle near the upper and anterior periphery downward and backward toward the center of the membrane. This tubercle represents the short process of the malleus. Where the handle of the malleus ends near the center of the membrane is a depression, the umbo. Under illumination in the anterior and lower quadrant of the drum will also be noted a triangular area of light (the reflec-

tion of light) with its apex at the tip of the handle and its base at the periphery of the drum. Extending anteriorly and posteriorly from the short process of the malleus are two delicate folds of membrane which divide the drum into two portions. That portion above these folds is known as Schrapnell's membrane, or the membrana flaccida, and that below as the membrana tensor.

The Eustachian tube is a canal about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) long, connecting the pharynx with the tympanic cavity. It has a general direction from the tympanum forward, downward, and inward, opening upon the lateral wall of the pharynx near the inferior meatus of the nose in front of Rosenmüller's fossa as a crater-like eminence. The tube is made up of a framework which in the outer third is bony and in the inner two thirds cartilaginous and membranous, and is lined with ciliated epithelium which waves in a direction toward the pharynx. The two ends are enlarged, but approaching the juncture of the osseous and cartilaginous portions the tube narrows considerably. Normally the walls are in apposition, but when the palatal muscles contract, as, for example, in the act of swallowing or yawning, the walls are separated. The function of the Eustachian tube is to equalize the atmospheric pressure on the outer and inner sides of the drum, and to provide drainage for the tympanic cavity and mastoid cells.

Diagnostic Methods.

A complete examination of the ear should comprise a clinical history, an examination of the nasopharynx, and then an investigation of the ear itself.

A history is quite essential, but it need not necessarily be an exhaustive one. It should first be ascertained what symptoms or symptom the patient complains of, and whether only one ear or both are affected. The duration of the trouble is also of importance, as it has considerable bearing upon the prognosis in any given case. The probable cause of the condition should also be determined as far as is possible by careful questioning. Among the many etiological factors of ear diseases are severe colds, grippe, some injury, insects, acute infectious diseases, syphilis, tuberculosis, etc. The symptoms or symptom complained of should then be investigated more in detail.

Deafness and tinnitus are the common complaints for which relief is sought, and are frequently associated. In the presence of the former it should be learned whether the deafness developed slowly or suddenly, whether one or both ears are involved, and, if the latter be the case, which ear is more affected. The duration of the condition must also

be ascertained. Not infrequently in the presence of chronic catarrh of the middle ear, the patient, while not actually deaf, will complain of certain disturbances of hearing, as, for example, the ability to hear better in the presence of noise, as on a railroad train or street car (paracusis Willisii), or hearing sounds as if repeated twice (paracusis duplicata), or, again, in the presence of marked unilateral deafness the inability to locate the source of sounds (paracusis localis).

Tinnitus, or subjective noises, are present in middle-ear diseases as well as affections of the internal ear, in neurasthenic conditions, arteriosclerosis, and may follow the taking of certain drugs, as, for example, quinin or the salicylates. They may be described by the patient as singing, whistling, buzzing, loud and roaring or musical in character, or they may resemble voices. When present, it should be learned whether they are located in the ear or in the head, whether unilateral or bilateral, and whether they are modified by mental or physical exertion or by the time of day. As a rule they are worse at night, and in some cases they may be entirely absent during the day.

In the presence of pain or earache, its character, the duration, and whether constant or intermittent should be noted. Pain may be the result of morbid conditions in the ear or it may be reflex, as, for example, from a decayed tooth, or from an inflammation of the pharynx, tonsils, etc. When it suddenly develops in an ear previously healthy it generally points to an acute inflammation of the middle ear, while, if, on the other hand, it occurs during the course of some chronic affection of the ear, a collection of fluid in the middle ear or destruction of bone may be suspected. Pressure tenderness is also of diagnostic importance in determining the origin of the trouble. Thus, pain caused by traction upon the auricle or by pressure on the tragus points to an inflammation involving the external auditory canal, tenderness elicited by pressure in the depression below the lobule of the ear to middle-ear inflammation, and pressure tenderness over the mastoid to involvement of that bone.

The presence or absence of a discharge is next determined. With a history of a discharging ear, the length of time the discharge has lasted, the character of the discharge, whether serous, bloody, or purulent, whether scanty or in large amounts and whether continuous or intermittent should be noted. It is also important to ascertain if the discharge is accompanied by pain, and the relation the pain and the discharge bear to one another.

In addition to the above points, the occupation and habits of the patient should be investigated as having an etiological bearing upon the case, and in certain cases a general physical examination should be

made. One should never fail to investigate the condition of the nose and throat, especially the nasopharynx, noting the presence or absence of congestion, swelling of the mucous membrane, adenoid growths, ulcers, etc., and the condition of the pharyngeal ends of the Eustachian tubes. The technic of such examination has been already described in Chapter XI. The parts in the vicinity of the ear should likewise be inspected as well as palpated for signs of inflammation, swellings, new growths, enlarged glands, or signs of tenderness. Having completed these preliminaries, the actual examination of the ear should be instituted.

The examination of the ear comprises (1) direct inspection of the external ear, (2) inspection of the external auditory canal and tympanic membrane by the aid of specula, (3) determination of the mobility of the drum membrane, (4) various tests of the power of hearing, and (5) determination of the patency of the Eustachian tubes. In all cases the examiner should not fail to investigate the condition of *both ears.*

DIRECT INSPECTION.

A thorough inspection of the auricle and external auditory canal should always precede the use of a speculum. In this way the examiner may be enabled to recognize pathological conditions at the entrance of the auditory canal that might otherwise escape attention or be hidden from view by the speculum.

Instruments.—All that is required is suitable illumination. This may be furnished by means of an electric head light (see Fig. 283), or by means of light reflected upon the part by means of a head mirror.

Position of Patient.—The patient is seated upon a stool with the ear to be examined turned toward the surgeon, who is also seated upon a stool of such height that his eyes are on a level with the ear of the patient. If reflected light is employed, the source of illumination should be a little above the level of the patient's ear and upon the examiner's left side.

Technic.—Under full illumination the auricle is first carefully inspected, noting the presence or absence of excoriations from discharges, eczema, swellings, deformities, new growths, etc. Then by means of traction upon the auricle in an upward and backward direction, the external auditory canal is straightened out and a view of a considerable portion of its interior becomes possible. The examiner should note especially the color of the canal for signs of inflammation, the presence or absence of swellings, fissures, foreign bodies, new growths, etc.

OTOSCOPY.

Otoscopy is the inspection of the external auditory canal and tympanic membrane by the aid of a speculum and suitable illumination. By this means parts of the auditory canal and the drum membrane invisible to direct inspection may be viewed in detail, and the presence or absence of pathological conditions recognized.

Instruments.—There will be required a strong light, such as is obtained from a Welsbach burner covered by a Mackenzie condenser, mounted upon an adjustable bracket so that it may be raised to any desired height, a concave head mirror 3 1/2 to 4 inches (8.9 cm.

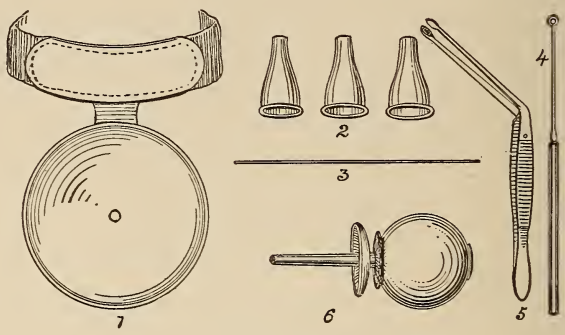


Fig. 337.—Instruments for otoscopy.
1, Head mirror; 2, aural specula; 3, ear probe; 4, ear curet; 5, angular ear forceps; 6, ear syringe.

to 10 cm.) in diameter with a central perforation for the eye, three sizes of metal aural specula, a fine ear curet, a probe, a pair of Politzer angular ear forceps, and an ear syringe (Fig. 339). If desired, in place of reflected light, illumination from an electric head light may be substituted.

For purposes of examination Gruber's specula (Fig. 338) are most satisfactory, as they are elliptical in shape upon transverse section thus corresponding to a transverse section of the external auditory canal. Where, however, operative procedures are indicated a speculum with a wide proximal end that will permit the manipulation of instruments, such as Boucheron's (Fig. 339) or Toynbee's is preferable. Electric-lighted specula[1] (Fig. 340) are now used to a large extent, and simplify the operation considerably.

Asepsis.—To avoid carrying infection from one patient to another the instruments employed in otoscopy should be boiled or immersed

[1] Manufactured by the Electro-Surgical Instrument Co. of Rochester, N. Y., and the Wappler Co., New York City.

in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution and then rinsed in sterile water before use.

Position of Patient.—The patient and examiner should be seated, the former with the ear turned toward the examiner. The examiner's eyes should be on a level with the patient's ear and in a horizontal

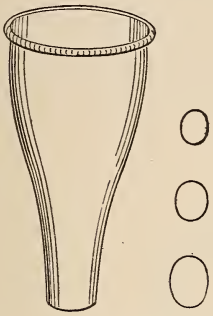


FIG. 338.—Gruber's speculum.

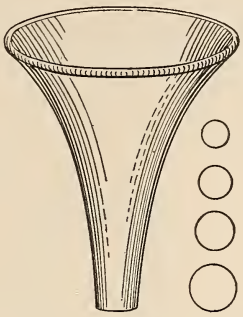


FIG. 339.—Boucheron's speculum.

plane with the external auditory canal. If reflected light is employed, the source of illumination should be a little above the level of the patient's ear and upon the examiner's left.

Technic.—The examiner directs the light full upon the external auditory meatus and, grasping the auricle between the thumb and index

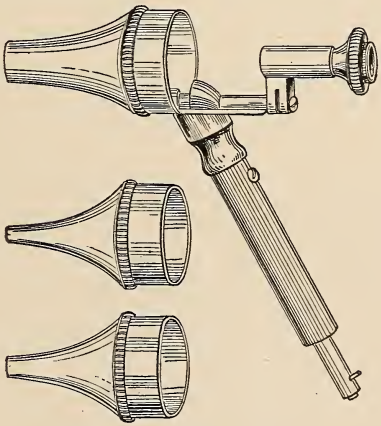


FIG. 340.—Electric-lighted speculum.

finger of the left hand (if the right ear is being examined and *vice versa*), makes traction in an upward, backward, and slightly outward direction, to straighten out the auditory canal. In infants, to accomplish this, it is necessary to pull the auricle outward and a little downward, as the wall of the canal has no bony support at this time and lies

collapsed against the side of the head. The speculum is then warmed and, grasped by its rim between the thumb and index finger of the right hand, it is gently introduced by a slight rotary motion until it has passed the junction of the cartilaginous and bony portions of the canal. In inserting the instrument, care must be taken to follow the long axis of the auditory canal, by watching the parts illuminated at the distal end of the speculum until the drum membrane is brought to view. With the speculum properly in place, the left hand is shifted from the auricle to hold the speculum, the right hand being thus left free to manipulate any instruments (Fig. 341).

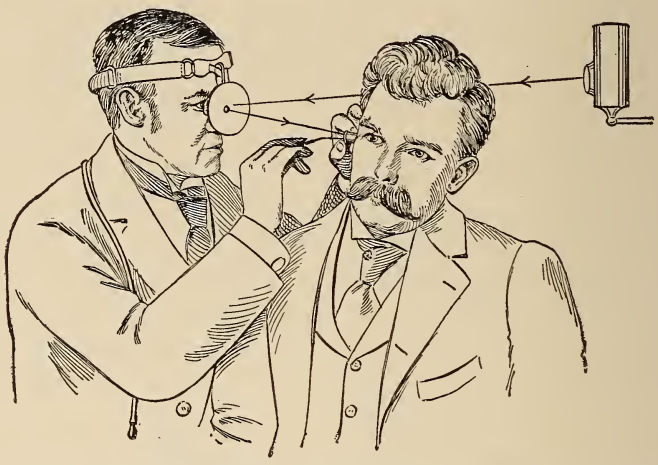


Fig. 341.—Otoscopy with the reflector and ear speculum. The arrows represent course of light. (Gleason.)

Before examining the drum membrane, the external auditory canal should be inspected, noting its color, size and shape, and the presence or absence of foreign bodies, polypi, discharges, secretions, or cerumenous plugs. Signs of inflammation and furuncles should also be looked for. Sometimes secretions and collections of wax require removal before inspection is possible. This may be accomplished, as a rule, by gently syringing the canal with warm saline solution or a saturated solution of boric acid (see page 339). Small masses of wax and flakes may require removal by means of the curet, followed by gentle syringing. The ear is then thoroughly dried by means of small mops of sterile cotton held in angular forceps or wrapped about the tip of a probe.

The examiner next inspects the drum membrane. It is placed at the distal end of the canal, inclining downward and inward at an angle of about 45 degrees. The normal drum appears translucent and of a

pearly gray color, with its circumference appearing as a white line. Extending from above downward and backward in the upper half of the drum is seen the handle of the malleus. In the upper and anterior portion about 1/25 inch (1 mm.) from the superior wall is the short process of the malleus, and running forward and backward above the short process are two folds of membrane above which lies Schrapnell's membrane. Extending from the tip of the malleus toward the periphery, in the lower and anterior quadrant, will be noted the bright cone of reflected light. In addition to these landmarks normally to be

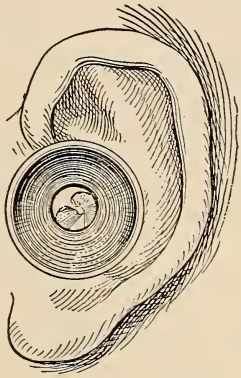


FIG. 342.—The appearance of the drum membrane as seen through the speculum.

observed, if the membrane is very thin and retracted, there may be seen the long process of the incus as a whitish line running down behind and parallel to the handle of the malleus.

On inspection of the drum membrane, one should note first its color, whether congested and red and if uniformly so, also whether translucent, as it normally should be, or thickened and exhibiting localized opacities. The presence or absence of granulations or perforations should also be determined, the latter being evidenced by the greater depth of the drum at the point of perforation. Note also if the membrane is retracted or bulging with fluid. If retracted, the short process of the malleus appears more plainly, the handle is shortened, and the conical folds are deepened. At the same time the cone of reflected light will appear altered in shape and displaced. If bulging is present, its location should be noted. As a rule, bulging occurs in the posterior portion of the membrane, or the entire drum may be distended. If it occurs in the upper portion only, involvement of the attic is present. By changing the position of the speculum slightly all portions of the drum may be viewed in detail. By means

of a cotton-tipped probe, inspection may be supplemented by careful palpation, if further information as to the conditions found is desired. In all manipulations of the speculum or instruments great gentleness should be observed.

DETERMINATION OF THE MOBILITY OF THE DRUM MEMBRANE.

By the aid of a pneumatic otoscope with which the air in the external auditory canal may be alternately condensed or rarefied, it is possible to determine the degree of mobility possessed by the membrana tympani, and thus recognize undue rigidity or laxness of the drum or the existence of intratympanic adhesions binding the drum or ossicles to the walls of the tympanum.

Apparatus.—Siegle's pneumatic otoscope (Fig. 343) consists of an air-tight chamber, the proximal end of which is closed by a plain glass window or convex lens placed at an angle of 45 degrees to the

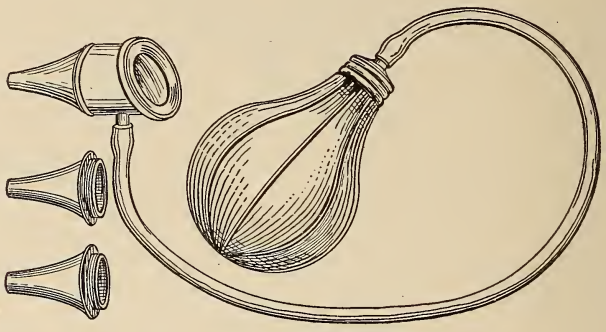


FIG. 343.—Siegle's pneumatic otoscope.

long axis of the instrument, while to the distal end may be screwed different sized specula. Upon the side of the air-tight chamber is placed a small perforated knob to which is attached a piece of rubber tubing and a hand bulb. The instrument may be obtained with an electric light in its interior or illumination may be supplied by an electric head light or reflected light from a head mirror.

Position of Patient.—The patient and the operator occupy the same relative positions as employed for an ordinary otoscopic examination (see page 325).

Technic.—Some of the air is expelled from the bag which is held in the examiner's right hand, and the instrument is fitted snugly into the auditory canal in the same manner as an ordinary speculum. A small piece of rubber tubing may be slipped over the end of the specu-

lum, if necessary, to insure its fitting the auditory canal more accurately. The examiner then observes under good illumination the movement of the drum membrane through the window in the otoscope, as he relaxes or compresses the bulb. As the air is rarefied, the drum is sucked outward and becomes convex in shape. As the air is condensed by compression of the bulb, the drum membrane moves inward and becomes more concave. The presence of adhesions will be evidenced by absence of any mobility at that particular point, while other parts of the drum will move freely. Too energetic use of the instrument must be avoided for fear of rupturing a weakened drum.

HEARING TESTS.

Hearing tests are very important in the diagnosis of ear diseases, since they not only furnish information as to the extent the hearing is impaired, but also serve to localize the seat of a lesion, that is, whether in the conducting apparatus or in the nervous mechanism. While

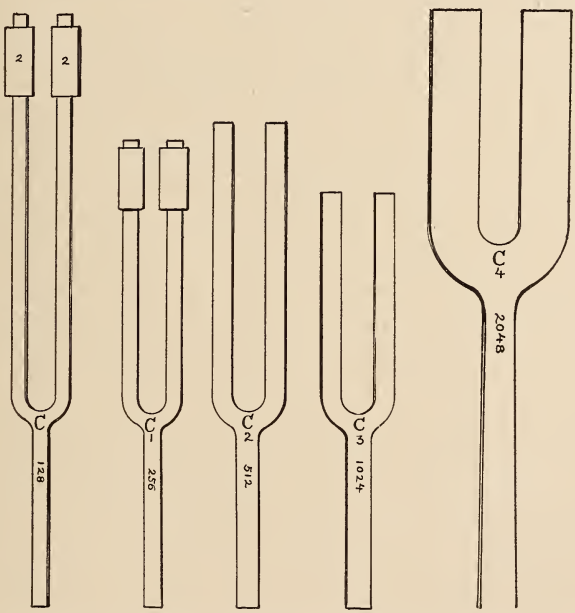


FIG. 344.—Hartmann's set of tuning-forks varying from 128 vs. to 2048 vs.

there have been a number of hearing tests devised, the following are sufficient for all practical purposes: (1) testing the acuteness of hearing by means of the watch and voice, (2) testing the perception of high and low notes, (3) Weber's, and (4) Rinné's test.

Apparatus.—While it is of advantage to have a complete set of tuning-forks, the ordinary tests may be carried out with a low tone fork (C–2) having thirty-two vibrations per second, a Galton's whistle for high tones, and a C 2 fork having 512 vibrations per second for Weber's and Rinné's tests. Galton's whistle (Fig. 345) gives tones ranging from about 7000 vibrations per second to the highest perceptible tone limit. The instrument is provided with a scale and screw whereby the number of vibrations may be regulated so as to give any tone within the limits stated above.

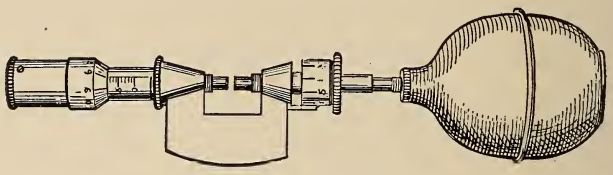


FIG. 345.—Galton's whistle.

Tests of the Acuteness of Hearing.—1. *The Watch Test.*—The test is made in a room free from noise and with a watch that ticks rather loudly. Since the ticking of different watches varies considerably, the distance at which the particular watch is heard by a normal ear must be determined by experience. Each ear is tested separately in the following manner: The patient is seated in a chair with his eyes closed, and with his forefinger closing the ear not under examination. The examiner first holds the ticking watch close to the ear being tested so that the patient can hear it distinctly and then slowly brings it from a distance beyond the range of hearing power toward the ear in a line perpendicular to the auricle until the patient again recognizes the ticking. The distance from the ear at which the ticking is heard is then accurately measured, and the result is expressed in a fraction of inches, the denominator of which represents the number of inches at which the particular watch is normally heard and the numerator the number of inches it is heard by the ear under examination. For example, if the watch is heard at forty inches by the normal ear and the patient hears it at ten inches the result is expressed as 10/40.

2. *The Voice Test.*—The patient is seated in a large room with the eyes closed and the ear not under examination plugged with the forefinger. The examiner then repeats words of one syllable or numerals in an ordinary voice and also in a whisper at the end of expiration with the residual air from various distances, and measures the distance at

which the patient can hear and repeat them correctly. The result is expressed in a fraction of feet, the denominator of which represents the distance in feet at which the normal ear can hear the voice and the numerator the actual distance at which it is heard by the ear under examination. In employing this test it is important that the patient does not see the lips of the examiner and that the sounds are transmitted to the ear under examination at right angles to the auricle.

Testing the Perception of Different Notes.—The normal range of hearing in adults for musical notes lies between 16 and 48,000 vibrations per second. The majority of individuals, however, possess a more limited range than this, varying from about 24 to 16,000 vibrations per second. In this test the hearing is tested for low tones with a low-toned fork and for high tones with the Galton whistle. The test is of diagnostic value in differentiating between disturbance of hearing due to affections of the conducting and those of the perceptive apparatus. Where the conduction apparatus is at fault high tones are heard better than low, while in diseases of the perceptive apparatus, the low tones are heard well, but high-tone hearing is lost or diminished. It should be remembered, however, that in advancing age the upper tone limit is lowered.

Weber's Test.—It is employed for the purpose of locating the seat of unilateral deafness. In this test a C 2 (512 vs.) fork is set vibrating and the handle is placed on the incisor teeth or upon the cranium in the mid-line. If the sound is heard best in the affected ear, it is indicative of some affection of the conduction apparatus, as middle-ear disease, impacted cerumen, or occlusion of the Eustachian tube, while if the perceptive apparatus is at fault, it will be heard better in the normal ear.

Rinne's Test.—This test depends upon the fact that aerial conduction is better than bony conduction. In a normal ear, if a C 2 (512 vs.) fork be placed upon the mastoid until the patient no longer hears any sound, and, if the fork is then brought close to the external ear, the sound will again be heard. This is known as a *positive Rinné*. If, however, the sound is not heard again when the fork is thus transposed, it is known as a *negative Rinné*. Therefore, in a deaf ear, if we obtain a positive Rinné, it is indicative of a lesion in the perceptive apparatus, while if, under the same conditions, the test is negative, it shows that bony conduction is increased; *i.e.*, there is some obstruction or disease of the conduction apparatus.

INFLATION OF THE MIDDLE EAR.

Inflation of the middle ear has both diagnostic and therapeutic value. As a diagnostic measure it is employed to determine the patency of the Eustachian tubes, that is, whether or not an unobstructed communication exists between the middle ear and the pharynx; for the purpose of detecting the presence or absence of an exudate in the middle ear, and, if so, the character of the exudate; to detect the presence of perforation of the membrana tympani; and to determine the mobility of the membrana tympani. The therapeutic uses of inflation will be considered later (see page 345).

An auscultatory tube is employed in conjunction with inflation for the purpose of determining whether air enters the middle ear and to distinguish the character of the sound produced which is of diagnostic importance. Thus, in a normal condition of the Eustachian tubes and tympanic cavity, air will be heard to enter the middle ear with a soft blowing sound; if the tube be obstructed, the sound will have a more or less whistling character, while, if the obstruction is not overcome, air will not be heard to enter the middle ear at all and the sound will be distant. When the middle ear contains an exudate, the sound will vary according to the character of the fluid; if it is thin and watery, a fine bubbling sound will be heard; if it is thick and viscid, the sound will be a coarse bubbling one. In the presence of a perforation of the membrana tympani, inflation causes a characteristic hissing or whistling sound and often secretion will be forced out through the perforation into the external auditory canal. By the aid of a speculum, the drum may be inspected and the effect of the inflation upon it noted and the mobility determined.

There are three methods by which the middle ear may be inflated: (1) Valsalva's method, (2) Politzer's method, and (3) catheterization. Before practising inflation it is a wise precaution to inspect the eardrum to see if it is sufficiently strong to stand the strain, as cases have been reported where a diseased drum has been ruptured by the Politzer bag.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be seated upon a chair. The examiner is also seated, facing the patient.

Preparations of Patient.—In all cases the nose and pharynx should be thoroughly cleansed before inflation is performed by means of gargling and the use of a nasal spray (page 299).

Valsalva's Method.—This method of inflation is the simplest of the three and at the same time is the least reliable. It is fairly

successful, however, if only a slight obstruction exists. On account of the ease with which it can be performed by the patient, it is apt to be repeated too frequently, with the risk of producing a flaccid condition of the drum unless the patient is cautioned against its overuse.

Apparatus.—There will be required a head mirror and some source of illumination, or an electric head light, aural specula, and an aural stethoscope. The latter instrument (Fig. 346) consists of a piece of rubber tubing, about 3 feet (90 cm.) long into the two ends of which are fitted hard-rubber ear-pieces—a white one for the examiner's ear and a black one to fit into the patient's ear.

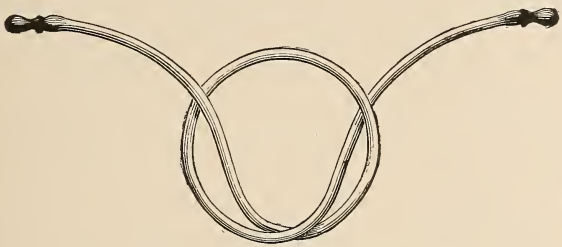


Fig. 346.—Aural stethoscope.

Technic.—The patient's mouth should be shut and the nostrils held closed by the fingers. Then the patient is instructed to give a forced expiration and at the same time swallow. The act of swallowing causes the tubes to relax, and the air, under pressure, is thus forced through the tubes into the middle ear. As this occurs the patient will have a feeling of distention in both ears, and the examiner by means of the aural stethoscope will hear the sound of air entering the middle ear. If the drum membrane is inspected as the inflation is performed, it will be noticed that the membrane moves outward and becomes somewhat congested.

Politzer's Method.—This is probably the most frequently employed method of inflation.

Apparatus.—There will be required a head mirror and suitable illumination or an electric head light, aural specula, an aural stethoscope, and a Politzer air-bag (Fig. 347). The Politzer air-bag consists of a soft pear-shaped bag of such size and shape that it can be readily compressed in the operator's hand, supplied with a piece of rubber tubing about 8 inches (20 cm.) long, to the end of which is attached an olive-shaped glass nose-piece.

Asepsis.—The glass nose-piece should be sterilized by boiling before use.

Technic.—The patient is first given a small amount of water—about a teaspoonful is sufficient—which he is instructed to hold in his mouth until told to swallow. The examiner then inserts the nose-

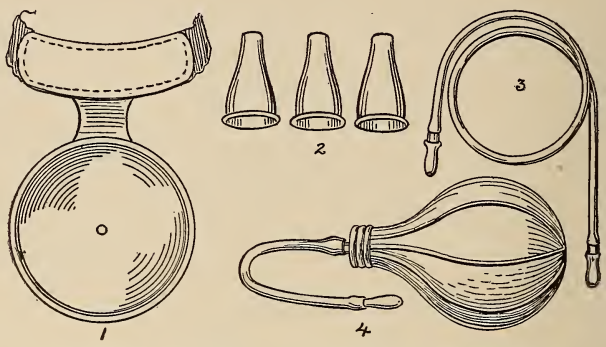


FIG. 347.—Instruments for Politzer's method of inflation.
1, Head mirror; 2, aural specula; 3, aural stethoscope; 4, Politzer inflation bag.

piece of the Politzer bag into one nostril for a distance of about 1/2 inch (1 cm.), and compresses both nostrils about it by means of the left thumb and forefinger. The patient is then told to swallow, and, as the larynx is seen to rise up at the commencement of the act

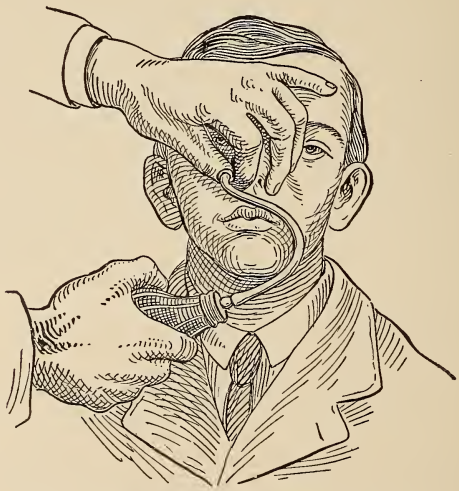


FIG. 348.—Inflation by Politzer's method.

of swallowing, the examiner compresses the air-bag with his right hand (Fig. 348). The act of swallowing causes the soft palate to rise upward and shut off the naso-pharynx, and, at the same time, the Eustachian tubes tend to open so that the air is readily forced through

the tubes into the middle ear. In children crying has the same effect as swallowing.

With the auscultatory tube the character of the sound produced is recognized. When it is desired to inflate only one ear, the patient's head should be turned to one side, so that the affected ear lies uppermost, while at the same time the opposite ear is closed by the fingers pressed against the external auditory meatus. In using Politzer's bag care should be taken not to use a great amount of force and thereby avoid causing the patient pain.

Catheterization.—Inflation through an Eustachian catheter is only indicated when inflation by the methods previously mentioned is impossible. The passage of a catheter into the Eustachian tube is a delicate operation requiring skill as well as gentleness of touch for its safe and successful performance. If carelessly performed, there is danger of injuring the mucous lining of the tube or of making a false passage and injecting air into the submucous tissues of the tube, an

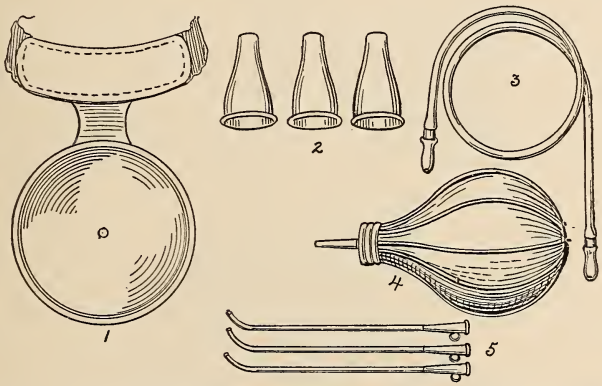


Fig. 349.—Instruments for inflation through an Eustachian catheter.
1, Head mirror; 2, aural specula; 3, aural stethoscope; 4, Politzer's inflation bag; 5, Eustachian catheters.

accident from which deaths from respiratory obstruction have been reported. In certain cases it may be impossible to perform catheterization, as, for example, in the presence of marked deviations of the septum, considerable narrowing of the nasal fossæ, tumors, or adenoids, and in nervous or hysterical individuals or in those upon whom attempts to pass the catheter excite coughing, retching, or spasm of the pharyngeal muscles.

Apparatus.—There will be required a head mirror and suitable illumination or an electric head light, aural specula, an aural stethoscope, a Politzer air-bag with an Eustachian catheter tip, and several

sizes of Eustachian catheters (Fig. 349). The catheter is a metal tube 6 1/2 inches (16 cm.) long, curved at its distal end, the extreme tip of which is slightly bulbous, and with an expanded proximal end into which the tip of a Politzer bag may be fitted. It should be of pure silver so that its curve may be changed to fit the individual case. A ring is placed upon the side of the instrument near its proximal end to indicate the direction of the beak. Three sizes should be provided 1/25, 1/12, 1/8 inch (1, 2, and 3 mm.) in diameter, respectively.

Asepsis.—The catheter should be sterilized by boiling and the hands of the operator should be cleansed as for any operative procedure.

Anesthesia.—In sensitive individuals the nose may be anesthetized by means of a small amount of a 4 per cent. solution of cocain applied by means of a cotton-tipped probe to the inferior meatus.

Fig. 350.—Catheterizing the Eustachian tube. First step, showing the position of the catheter for its introduction.

Technic.—The operator first inspects the nose by the aid of illumination for the presence of deviations of the septum or other pathological conditions which might interfere with the passage of the catheter. The catheter may then be inserted by one of two methods:

1. *Löwenberg Method.*—The proximal end of the lubricated catheter is grasped lightly between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, while by means of the thumb of the left hand, the tip of the patient's nose is elevated so as to straighten out the canal. The beak of the

instrument is then introduced within the anterior nares, the shaft of the instrument being in an almost vertical position (Fig. 350). The catheter is then elevated to a horizontal position, and, with the tip *kept constantly in contact with the floor of the nose*, it is gently pushed

FIG. 351.—Catheterizing the Eustachian tube. Second step, catheter being passed along the floor of the nose.

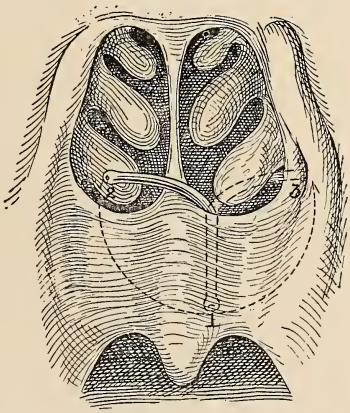


FIG. 352.—Showing the different positions of the beak of the catheter in its insertion into the orifice of the Eustachian tube. (After Barnhill and Wales.)

inward until the beak comes in contact with the posterior wall of the pharynx (Fig. 351). The beak is then rotated through an angle of 90 degrees toward the median line, until the guide ring lies horizontal, and the catheter is drawn forward until its beak is found to impinge upon

the nasal septum (Fig. 352). The beak is then rotated downward and outward through an angle of a little more than 180 degrees until the guide ring points toward the outer canthus of the eye; at the same time the proximal end of the catheter is moved toward the nasal septum, and its tip thus enters the Eustachian tube (Fig. 353). In all these manipulations care should be taken to employ the greatest gentleness. The entrance of the catheter into the tube will be recognized by the fact that the tip is firmly fixed and cannot be rotated. The catheter is

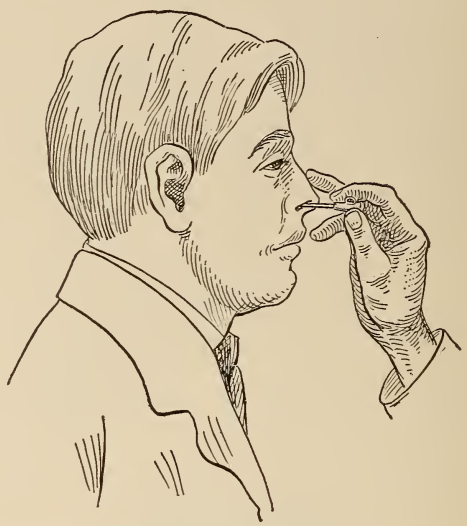


FIG. 353.—Catheterizing the Eustachian tube. Third step, showing the position of the guide when the catheter tip is entering the orifice of the tube.

now held in place by the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, the other fingers resting upon the bridge of the nose, and, with the nozzle of the air-bag fitted into the proximal end of the catheter, inflation is performed by compressing the bag in the fingers of the right hand (Fig. 354). While this is done the examiner notes the sound produced by means of the auscultation tube.

In removing the catheter it is first rotated until its back points downward and is then gently withdrawn by a reversal of the movements employed in its insertion.

2. *Binnafont or Kramer Method.*—The instrument is introduced in the same manner as described under the Löwenberg method until the beak is in contact with the posterior pharyngeal wall. The beak is then rotated outward through more than an angle of 90 degrees which causes its tip to rest in Rosenmüller's fossa. The catheter is then with-

drawn until its tip is felt to slip over the bulging posterior lip of the Eustachian mouth when its tip will be at the pharyngeal orifice of the tube. The distance it is necessary to withdraw the catheter to accomplish this varies usually between 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.). The catheter is then rotated until the guide ring points to the outer canthus of the eye and the tip slips into the tube. With the catheter in position inflation is performed as described above.

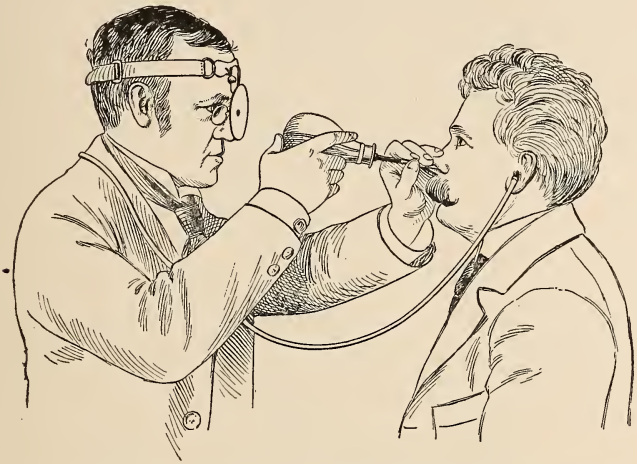


FIG. 354.—Inflation through an Eustachian catheter. (Gleason.)

Therapeutic Measures.

THE EAR SYRINGE.

Syringing of the ear is employed for the purpose of removing foreign bodies or cerumenous masses from the external auditory canal and to keep the ear free from purulent material which collects after perforation or incision of the drum membrane. In using an ear syringe one must always employ extreme gentleness and solutions of the proper temperature, otherwise the procedure is not only rendered painful, but is capable of causing harm. Especially is it necessary to avoid forcible injections in cases where the tympanum is exposed through destruction of a considerable portion of the drum membrane.

The Syringe.—The syringe should be simple in construction and of such material that it may be easily sterilized, and should have a capacity of 1 or 2 ounces (30 to 59 c.c.). It should be provided with a blunt conical nozzle—the ordinary olive-shaped tip is not to be commended, as it interferes with a free return flow. A syringe with a long-pointed

nozzle, such as is shown in Fig. 356 will often be found more efficacious in removing foreign bodies than the ordinary syringe.

For irrigating the internal ear through a perforation in the attic, a

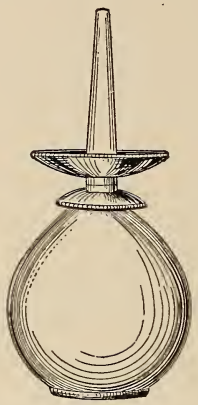


Fig. 355.—Allport's ear syringe.

smaller syringe, such as Blake's (Fig. 357), with a capacity of 1/2 dram (1.9 c.c.), provided with specially bent tips, is used. There will be

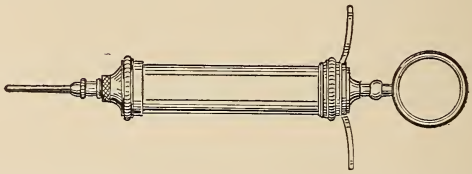


Fig. 356.—Metal ear syringe with a small nozzle.

required, in addition, suitable illumination, aural specula, and an aural applicator.

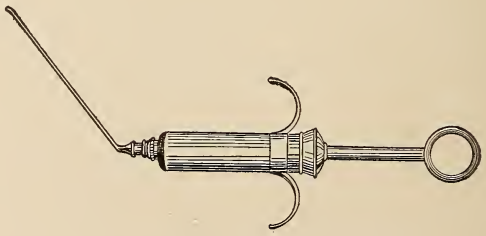


Fig. 357.—Blake's tympanic syringe.

Asepsis.—The syringe and nozzle should be sterilized by boiling before being used, and the solution used should be sterile.

Solutions Used.—Normal salt solution (ʒi (3.90 gm.) of salt to a

pint (473.11 c.c.) of boiled water), a saturated solution of boric acid, a solution of bichlorid of mercury, 1 to 5000 to 1 to 2000, are among those frequently employed.

Temperature.—The solution should be injected warm—at about a temperature of 100° F. Cold solution should never be used, as it is apt to cause vertigo or fainting.

Quantity.—For the purpose of removing foreign bodies or wax, 1 or 2 syringefuls of solution are usually sufficient. When syringing is employed in cases of otorrhea, much larger quantities are necessary, as much as 1/4 to 1 pint (118 to 473 c.c.) being required at a time.

Frequency.—This will depend upon the virulence of the infection and the amount of discharge. When the latter is very profuse, syringing may be indicated three or four times a day or oftener.

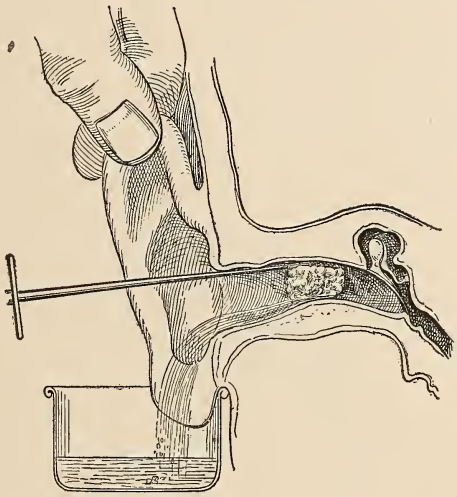


FIG. 358.—Washing impacted cerumen from canal. Showing how to hold auricle to straighten the canal and where to direct the stream of water. (Gleason.)

Position of Patient.—The patient is seated with the head held erect.

Technic.—The patient's clothing is protected by means of a towel secured about the neck and by having him hold a small glass basin below the auricle to receive the returning fluid. The operator then grasps the auricle between the left thumb and forefinger and draws it upward and backward, so as to straighten out the external auditory canal. With the right hand he then introduces the nozzle of the syringe into the external canal in such a way that the tip of the syringe rests against the superior wall of the canal, so that the solution, as it is injected, will pass along the upper wall and wash out purulent matter or

foreign material below (Fig. 358). The solution is then injected with only a small amount of force in sufficient quantities for the purpose of the operation. Should dizziness or syncope supervene, the operation should be immediately stopped.

At the completion of the syringing all moisture is removed by means of a cotton-tipped probe and, in the presence of a discharge, a strip of sterile gauze is lightly placed in the external canal.

In cases where it is necessary to cleanse out the attic through a perforation, the drum is exposed by the aid of a speculum and good illumination, and Blake's angular cannula is inserted through the perforation under direct vision. The cavity is then carefully cleansed by gentle syringing.

INSTILLATIONS.

In some cases of otorrhea where the discharge has become scanty, the long continued use of douches often seems to keep up an irritation and a persistence of the discharge. In these cases the instillation of astringent solutions for the purpose of promoting healthy granulations

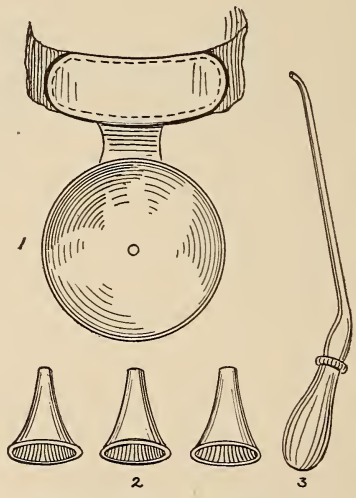


Fig. 359.—Instruments for tympanic instillation.
1, Head mirror; 2, aural specula; 3, glass instillator.

may be substituted. The solutions may be thus applied to the external auditory canal to affect the lining of the canal or membrana tympani or to the tympanic cavity through a perforation when the latter contains unhealthy granulation tissue.

Instruments.—To instil a solution into the external auditory canal, an ordinary glass medicine dropper may be employed. For tympanic instillations a pipet glass dropper with a small curved tip, a head mirror and illumination, and an aural speculum will be required (Fig. 359).

Asepsis.—The instruments should always be sterilized before use.

Solutions.—Solutions of silver nitrate 5 to 20 per cent., copper sulphate 5 per cent., zinc sulphate 5 per cent., alcohol 25 to 95 per cent. may be used.

Temperature.—The solutions should always be warm—at about 100°F.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be seated with the head bent sideways so that the affected ear lies uppermost.

Technic.—The ear is first cleansed and all secretion or fluid removed by means of a cotton-tipped probe. The operator then

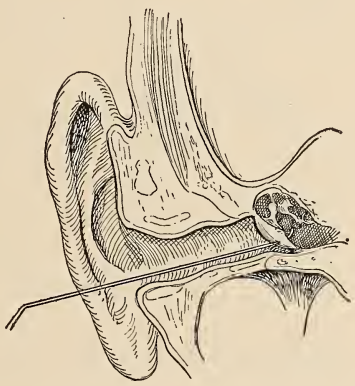


Fig. 360.—Showing nozzle of a pipet inserted for a tympanic instillation.

straightens out the external auditory canal by grasping the auricle between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand and exerting traction in an upward and backward direction. With the right hand he then instils 5 to 10 drops (0.30 to 0.60 c.c.) of the desired solution into the auditory canal. This is retained for from five to ten minutes, or for a shorter time if it causes burning or pain, and is then permitted to escape by having the patient incline the ear downward.

In making intratympanic instillations the auditory canal is first cleansed and the drum is exposed by means of a speculum. The point of the pipet is then carefully inserted through the perforation and a few drops of weak solution are injected (Fig. 360).

APPLICATION OF CAUSTICS.

The application of chemical caustics to the ear may be required for the purpose of destroying granulations or small polypi. The most frequently employed agents for this purpose are chromic acid or silver nitrate. They are applied fused upon the tip of a delicate ear probe. In making such applications with strong chemicals great care must be taken that the caustic only comes in contact with the area to be treated. They should, therefore, only be applied by the aid of a speculum and good illumination.

Instruments.—There will be required a head mirror and a source of strong light, aural specula, a delicate aural probe, and an aural applicator (Fig. 361).

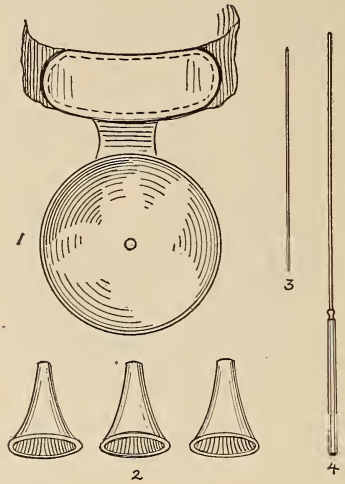


FIG. 361.—Instruments for applying caustics to the ear.
1, Head mirror; 2, aural specula; 3, aural probe; 4, applicator.

The method by which the acid or silver nitrate is fused upon the probe has been previously described (see page 303).

Position of the Patient.—The patient and the operator are seated in the same relative positions as for an ordinary otoscopic examination.

Technic.—With the speculum inserted in the ear and the parts well illuminated, the site of the intended application is cleansed and then thoroughly dried by means of cotton wrapped upon the end of an aural applicator. This is very important, for if any fluid be in the ear the caustic will spread to other parts as soon as it is applied. The caustic is then carefully applied to the area it is desired to destroy.

INFLATION OF THE MIDDLE EAR.

The value of inflation in diagnosis has been previously considered (see page 332). As a therapeutic measure it is employed in tubal and middle-ear disease with occlusion of the tube for the purpose of restoring the normal tension between the drum membrane, ossicles, and the internal ear. The circulation is thus improved and hyperemia and infiltration of the tubal and tympanic mucous membrane is diminished. At the same time morbid secretions are removed from the Eustachian tube and tympanic cavity, and newly formed adhesions are broken down.

The methods by which inflation may be performed and the technic will be found described on page 332.

INFLATION WITH MEDICATED VAPORS.

In certain cases of subacute or chronic nonsuppurative otitis media, inflation with medicated vapors is often employed to better advantage than plain air. The vapor of drugs having either a sedative or stimu-

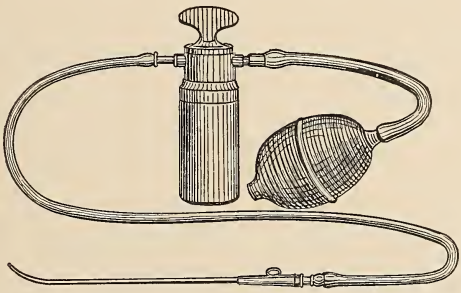


Fig. 362.—Dench's vaporizer and Eustachian catheter.

lating action may be used. In this way all the benefits of inflation plus the sedative or stimulating effect of the vapor upon the mucous membrane are obtained.

Apparatus.—A vaporizer, in which the air current passes over the volatile drug it is desired to employ, attached to an Eustachian catheter, forms the necessary apparatus. There are a number of convenient vaporizers, such as Hartmann's, Pynchon's, or Dench's (Fig. 362). The latter apparatus is especially useful, as plain air or medicated vapor may be obtained by simply turning a key on the top of the bottle.

Asepsis.—The catheter should be sterilized by boiling before use.

Formulary.—Vapors of menthol, camphor, eucalyptol, iodin, turpentine, chloroform, and ether alone or in combination are most frequently employed.

Preparation of Patient.—Same as for catheterization (see page 332).

Position of Patient.—Same as for catheterization (see page 332).

Technic.—The Eustachian catheter is passed by one of the methods described on pages 336 and 338 and with all the precautions detailed therein. Inflation with air is then performed in order to first force out from the tube any collection of mucus or secretion and thus permit the medicated vapor to come in contact with the mucous membrane. The medicated vapor is then blown into the tympanic cavity in the same manner, after attaching the vaporizer to the catheter.

THE INJECTION OF SOLUTIONS INTO THE EUSTACHIAN TUBES.

Direct medication of the Eustachian tubes may be used to advantage in the treatment of middle-ear catarrh for the purpose of lessening the swelling of the mucous membrane, and to diminish secretions, thereby rendering the tubes more permeable. Weak astringent solutions are generally employed for this purpose, injected through an Eustachian catheter.

Apparatus.—There will be required an Eustachian catheter, a small syringe, graduated in drops, and provided with a tip that will fit into the proximal end of the catheter (Fig. 363), and a Politzer air-bag.

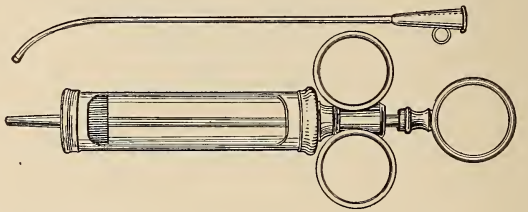


Fig. 363.—Eustachian catheter and syringe for medication of the Eustachian tubes.

Asepsis.—The catheter and syringe should be boiled, and the solution employed should be a sterile one.

Solutions Used.—Iodid of potassium 5 gr. (0.32 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), silver nitrate 2 to 5 gr. (0.13 to 0.32 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), sulphate of zinc 1 gr. (0.065 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), protargol 10 to 50 per cent., bicarbonate of soda 2 to 5 gr. (0.13 to 0.32 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), etc., may be employed.

Quantity.—About five to ten drops (0.30 to 0.60 c.c.) of the selected drug are injected at a time. If perforation of the drum exists more solution may be safely used, but in its absence small amounts only are applicable.

Preparation of the Patient.—Same as for catheterization (see page 332).

Position of Patient.—Same as for catheterization (see page 332).

Technic.—The catheter is introduced into the tube by one of the methods described on pages 336 and 338 and the ear is inflated by the Politzer bag to empty it of secretion. The small syringe is then charged with the warmed solution, and the desired amount is slowly injected through the catheter. The air-bag is then substituted for the syringe and the solution is blown into the tube.

THE EUSTACHIAN BOUGIE.

Eustachian bougies are employed in overcoming tubal obstructions which will not yield to inflation and for the purpose of dilating tubal strictures. In the latter condition, however, the use of the Eustachian bougie is rarely curative if the stricture is composed of dense connective tissue.

The bougie is passed into the tube through a catheter, and it should always be inserted with the greatest care and gentleness, as it is a very easy matter to injure the mucous membrane with the result that, if inflation be immediately performed, air may be forced under the mucous membrane through the tear and cause emphysema. It is, therefore, advisable to wait a day or two after passing the bougie

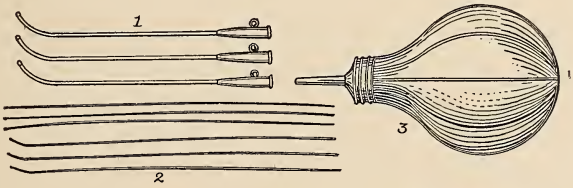


Fig. 364.—Instruments for dilatation of the Eustachian tubes.
1. Eustachian catheters; 2, Eustachian bougies; 3, Politzer's inflation bag.

before inflation is attempted. Care must also be observed not to pass the bougie a greater distance than the length of the tube; that is, not more than 1 1/4 inches (3 cm.) beyond the tip of the catheter.

Instruments.—There will be required an Eustachian catheter, Eustachian bougies, and a Politzer air-bag (Fig. 364). The bougies are made of silkworm gut or whalebone, with tips conical or bulbous in shape, and varying in diameter from 1/64 to 1/25 inch (0.4 mm. to 1 mm.). The catheter used to guide the bougie into the tube should be somewhat shorter than ordinary with a longer curved beak.

Asepsis.—The catheter and bougies should be thoroughly sterilized before use.

Frequency.—Bougies should not be inserted more frequently than two or three times a week in order to permit the reaction from one insertion to subside before another is attempted.

Preparations of Patient.—Same as for catheterization (see page 332).

Position of Patient.—Same as for catheterization (see page 332).

Technic.—The bougie is lubricated and is introduced within the catheter until the tip is level with the distal end of the catheter (Fig. 365). The catheter, with the bougie in place, is then introduced into the tube in the manner described on page 336. The bougie is then carefully passed into the tube for not more than 1 1/4 inches (3 cm.) which can be accomplished in a normal tube without difficulty. If

Fig. 365.—Showing the bougie inserted in the catheter ready to be passed into the Eustachian tube.

the bougie passes into the Eustachian tube, the patient will complain of some pain in the ear, neck, or occiput, whereas, if it doubles back into the pharynx, discomfort will be felt in that region. When resistance is encountered, the bougie should be pushed forward slowly and with great caution, occasionally rotating the bougie; *forcible manipulations must always be avoided* for fear of injuring the mucous membrane. Having successfully overcome the obstruction, the bougie is left *in situ* for five to ten minutes. At the next sitting a larger-sized bougie is employed.

The Medicated Bougie.—A medicated bougie, obtained by dipping a silkworm-gut bougie in some astringent solution, such as silver nitrate, before its passage, often has more pronounced and more prolonged effect than the plain bougie in overcoming a stenosis due to congestion or inflammation of the mucous membrane. The medicated bougie is introduced in the same manner as an ordinary bougie, and should be allowed to remain in place about fifteen to twenty minutes to obtain a prolonged action of the astringent.

MASSAGE OF THE MEMBRANA TYMPANI.

Massage of the ear-drum is performed by alternately rarefying and condensing the air in the external auditory meatus. This produces

an increased mobility in the membrana tympani and ossicles with the result that adhesive processes between the drum membrane and inner wall of the tympanum are avoided or broken up when formed and likewise ankylosis of the ossicular chain is prevented. The method, therefore, has greatest value in adhesive forms of middle-ear disease; in acute conditions its use is contraindicated. In all cases an accurate diagnosis is the first essential, otherwise massage may result in harm. It should be avoided in all cases of relaxed drum or where portions of the membrane are atrophic. In the latter condition the atrophied weakened portion will move under the influence of suction while the rest of the drum will be unaffected.

Apparatus.—The massage is performed with the Siegle type of instrument (see Fig. 343), by means of which the drum membrane may be observed and the effect of the massage noted.

Duration.—The massage may be applied for one to two minutes at a sitting.

Frequency.—Treatments should be given two to three times a week, but only so long as improvement in distance hearing takes place.

Technic.—The otoscope is introduced into the ear in the manner described on page 328, and the air is alternately rarefied and condensed by relaxation or compression of the bulb. The amount of pressure used should be regulated by noting the effect upon the membrane and ossicles. If the procedure causes pain, the pressure should be promptly reduced.

INCISION OF THE MEMBRANA TYMPANI.

Incision of the drum membrane should always be promptly performed in otitis media when the drum is bulging, for the purpose of establishing drainage for the exudate and to thereby prevent necrosis of the membrana tympani and tympanic contents. It is also indicated in acute cases in which, while the membrane is not actually bulging, it shows marked hyperemia and infiltration and the patient suffers from severe pain and exhibits constitutional symptoms of a severe infection. Especially in infants is early incision required under such conditions. If incision is delayed until bulging occurs, extensive destructive changes may have occurred and the process may rapidly extend to the mastoid antrum or to the cranial cavity. Finally early incision is always indicated if in the course of middle-ear disease there are signs of mastoid involvement or of meningitis.

The extent of incision is of importance. Simple puncture, or paracentesis, is to be avoided; instead, the incision should be of suffi-

cient size to afford free drainage for the products of suppuration, varying according to the age of the individual, from 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.) in length.

Instruments.—There will be required a head mirror and source of illumination or an electric head light, aural specula, a sharp paracentesis knife (straight or angular), and an ear syringe (Fig. 366).

Asepsis.—The instruments should be sterilized by boiling, and the operator's hands cleansed as thoroughly as for any operation.

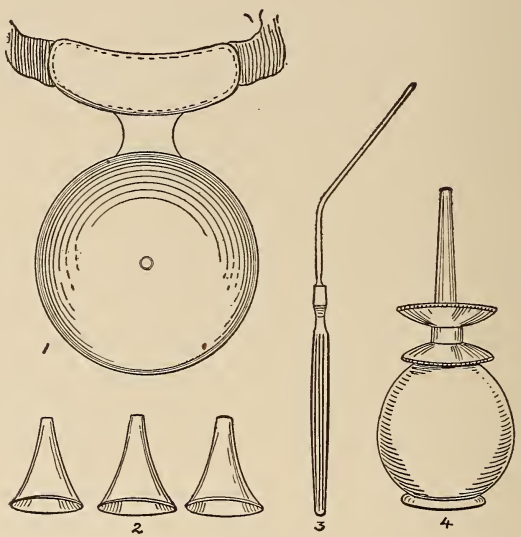


FIG. 366.—Instruments for incising the drum membrane.
1, Head mirror; 2, aural specula; 3, angular paracentesis knife; 4, Allport's ear syringe.

Preparations of Patient.—The external auditory canal should be thoroughly cleansed by syringing with warm saturated boracic acid solution or with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Anesthesia.—The operation is quite painful. In children general anesthesia by chloroform is indicated, while in adults nitrous oxid gas or some form of local anesthesia may be used. Local anesthesia, by means of a solution of cocain applied to the unbroken membrane, is not satisfactory, as the cocain is not absorbed. Instead, the following mixture may be employed:

℞. Cocain hydrochlorate	gr. vi (0.4 gm.)
Anilin oil,	
Alcohol,	āā ʒi (3.75 c.c.)

A small amount of this solution is instilled into the external auditory canal and is allowed to remain for fifteen minutes. It must be used with great care if a perforation be present, as it will thus enter the tympanic cavity where absorption is rapid and toxic symptoms may result.

Technic.—The drum is exposed by means of a speculum under good illumination, and the external canal is thoroughly dried. The knife is then inserted through the membrane in the postero-inferior quadrant, and the posterior quadrant of the drum is incised in a curve upward to the tympanic vault (Fig. 367). In doing this, the knife

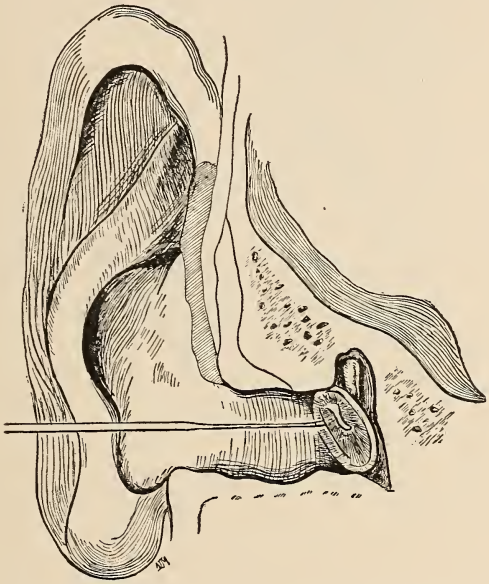


Fig. 367.—Incision of the membrana tympani in acute otitis media involving the lower portion of the tympanic cavity. (Dench.)

should only be inserted through the drum membrane, so as to avoid injuring the inner tympanic wall which lies distant only 1/12 to 1/6 inch (2 to 4 mm.). Of course, if there is any localized bulging, the incision should be so placed as to relieve it. When the tympanic vault alone is involved, the knife is entered in the posterior quadrant opposite the short process of the malleus and the incision is carried upward through Scrapnell's membrane. The knife is then turned backward, and, as it is withdrawn, the tissues of the posterior wall of the auditory canal are incised down to the bone for a distance of about 1/8 inch (3 mm.) from the drum (Fig. 368). In this way tension in the tympanic vault and mastoid is relieved.

The ear is then carefully cleansed by syringing and after being well dried, is loosely packed with gauze.

After-treatment.—The ear should be syringed with a warm 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution as often as secretion collects. At first, this will necessitate syringing every two or three hours. As the discharge decreases, longer intervals may elapse.

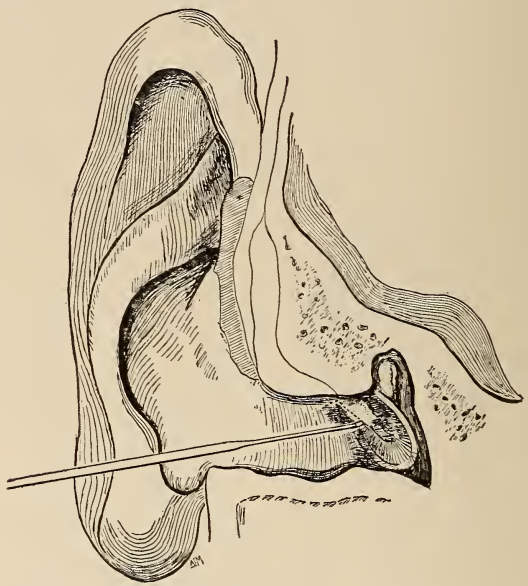


Fig. 368.—Incision of the membrana tympani in acute otitis media, involving the upper portion of the tympanic cavity (Dench).

CHAPTER XIII.

THE LARYNX AND TRACHEA.

Anatomic Considerations.

The Larynx is that portion of the upper air passages extending between the base of the tongue and the trachea. It lies in the median line of the neck, opposite the fourth, fifth, and sixth cervical vertebræ. Anteriorly, it is practically subcutaneous; posteriorly, it forms part of the anterior boundary of the pharynx; while on either side of it lie the great vessels of the neck. Above, it is broad and triangular in shape, while below it is narrow and cylindrical.

The framework consists of a number of cartilages held together by ligaments; it is lined with mucous membrane, and is capable of being moved by muscles which change the relative positions of the cartilages and thus modify the approximation of the vocal cords during respiration and phonation. The most important of these cartilages are the thyroid, the epiglottis, the cricoid, and the two arytenoids.

The thyroid cartilage is the largest of all, and consists of two broad lateral alæ joined in front at an acute angle. Above, it is joined to the hyoid bone by the thyrohyoid membrane, and, below, to the cricoid cartilage by the cricothyroid membrane. The space between the thyroid and cricoid cartilages in an adult measures about half an inch (1 cm.) in height, and an opening made through this space gives easy access to the larynx below the vocal cords.

The epiglottis is a leaf-shaped piece of elastic cartilage 1 1/3 inches (3.5 cm.) long, guarding the superior entrance of the larynx. It is attached by its stalk to the upper and posterior aspect of the angle between the thyroid alæ and to the hyoid bone by ligaments. It lies directly behind the tongue, and in swallowing it is pushed backward by the bolus of food, closing more or less completely the laryngeal opening and thereby preventing the entrance of food into the larynx.

The cricoid cartilage is a small, nearly semicircular cartilage forming the lower part of the cavity of the larynx. It is narrow in front, but becomes broadened and high posteriorly. Upon its superior border on either side it supports the arytenoid cartilages.

The arytenoid cartilages, two in number, are irregularly pyramidal in shape and rest by their bases on the superior border of the cricoid

cartilage. They rotate upon a vertical axis and also move laterally. Through these movements the vocal cords are approximated or drawn apart.

The Interior of the Larynx.—The superior opening is wide and semicircular in front where it is bounded by the epiglottis. The sides are formed by the arytenoepiglottic folds of mucous membrane which run from the sides of the epiglottis to the tops of the arytenoid cartilages and gradually approach posteriorly, so that the opening is narrowed

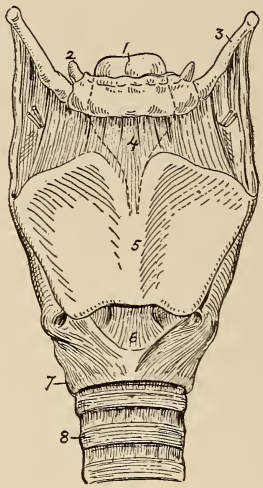


FIG. 369.—Anterior view of the larynx. (After Deaver.)
1, Epiglottis; 2, lesser cornu of hyoid bone; 3, greater cornu of hyoid bone; 4, thyrohyoid membrane; 5, thyroid cartilage; 6, cricothyroid membrane; 7, cricoid cartilage; 8, trachea.

behind. More or less distinct nodular prominences formed by the cuneiform and corniculate cartilages are recognized on these folds.

The cavity of the larynx extends from the superior aperture to the lower border of the cricoid cartilage. It is divided into two portions by the vocal cords—above, into the supraglottic region, and, below, into the subglottic region. The vocal cords consist of two delicate bands of elastic tissue enclosed in thin layers of mucous membrane having a whitish appearance. They are attached anteriorly to the thyroid cartilage and posteriorly to the arytenoids. They measure about 3/4 inch (2 cm.) in length in the male, and 1/2 inch (1.2 cm.) in the female. Between the two cords is a long narrow chink, the glottis. Above and parallel to the vocal cords are two second folds of mucous membrane enclosing ligamentous tissue, attached to the thyroid cartilage in front and to the two arytenoids behind,

commonly called the false vocal cords. Lying between the vocal cords and these two bands are two oblong fossæ, the ventricles of the larynx.

The mucous membrane of the larynx is continuous above with that lining the pharynx, and below with that of the trachea and bronchi. It is of the columnar ciliated variety, excepting where it covers the vocal cords and the space above the vocal cords, in which regions it is of the stratified variety. It contains many mucous glands, especially numerous upon the epiglottis.

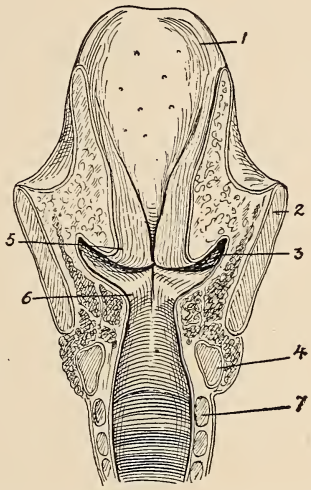


Fig. 370.—The interior of the larynx.
1, Epiglottis; 2, thyroid cartilage; 3, ventricle of larynx; 4, cricoid cartilage; 5, false vocal cords; 6, vocal cords; 7, first ring of trachea.

The trachea is a cylindrical tube, composed of cartilages and membrane, extending from the cricoid cartilage, at the level of the sixth cervical vertebra, to a point opposite the fourth dorsal, where it divides into a right and left bronchus. It is from 4 to 4 3/4 inches (10 to 12 cm.) long in males, and from 3 2/3 to 4 1/2 inches (9 to 11 cm.) long in females. Its transverse diameter measures on an average 4/5 of an inch (2 cm.) in males, and less in females. In a child of from two to four years, the transverse diameter measures 1/3 of an inch (8 mm.); in a child under eighteen months, it measures 1/4 of an inch (6 mm.).

The framework of the trachea is composed of from sixteen to nineteen rings of hyaline cartilage, incomplete behind, each measuring 1/12 to 1/5 of an inch (2 to 5 mm.) in breadth. The narrow space between these rings is filled with an elastic fibrous membrane which

splits into two layers to enclose each cartilage, and also serves to complete the tube posteriorly. Internally, the trachea is lined with a smooth mucous membrane of the ciliated variety, continuous above with that of the larynx and below with that of the bronchi. It contains an abundance of lymphoid tissue and mucous glands.

The trachea lies in a mass of loose fat which permits free motion upward, downward, and horizontally. In its upper part it lies comparatively superficial, but becomes more deeply placed as it approaches

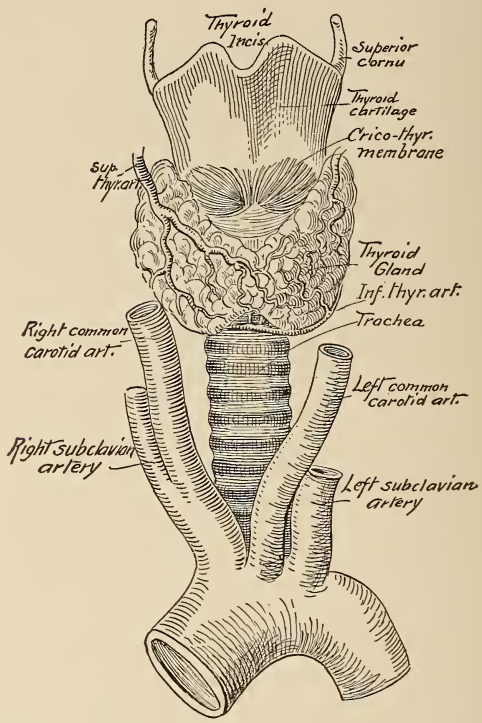


FIG. 371.—Anatomy of the trachea and its relations.

the thorax. The isthmus of the thyroid gland lies opposite the second and third rings; below this the following structures will be met from above downward: the inferior thyroid veins, the arteria thyroidea ima (if present), the sternohyoid and sternothyroid muscles, the cervical fascia, an anastomosis of the anterior jugular veins; and in the thorax, the remains of the thymus gland, the left innominate vein, the arch of the aorta, and the innominate and the left common carotid arteries. Behind lies the esophagus. Laterally, the trachea is in relation with the common carotid arteries, the lateral lobes of the thyroid, the

inferior thyroid arteries, and the recurrent laryngeal nerves. These relations are important to bear in mind in performing tracheotomy.

Diagnostic Methods.

The diagnostic methods employed in connection with the larynx and trachea consist in (1) inspection by means of a laryngeal mirror, (2) direct inspection through endoscopic tubes, (3) palpation by the probe or finger, and (4) skiagraphy.

As a preliminary to the actual local examination, attention should first be given to the general condition of the patient, and the history of other affections that may have a bearing upon the condition should be inquired into. This is important, for, while the symptoms of processes involving this portion of the respiratory tract are characteristic (consisting of cough, dyspnea, aphonia or dysphonia, dysphagia, etc.), and as a rule clearly indicate the seat of the trouble, it should be borne in mind that many of these symptoms are secondary to other conditions, such as gout, diphtheria, rheumatism, diabetes, nephritis, tuberculosis, syphilis, diseases of the nervous system, etc. Thus it becomes of the utmost importance to examine other organs as well by a thorough physical examination and not to limit the investigation to the affected region alone.

Having completed this portion of the examination, external inspection and palpation of the parts should be performed. In this way the presence of inflammation, swellings, new growths, enlarged glands, fractures of the cartilages, etc., may be determined, and the mobility or fixation of the parts during swallowing and respiration may be noted.

LARYNGOSCOPY AND TRACHEOSCOPY.

By this method the interior of the larynx and trachea are inspected by means of a laryngoscopic mirror and reflected light. The technic is not difficult, and, if properly carried out, a satisfactory inspection of the tissues may be made as far as the true vocal cords, and under favorable conditions the region beyond the glottis as far as the subdivision of the trachea may also be explored, and foreign bodies or pathological conditions recognized. Such examination is best made before a meal, as otherwise retching and vomiting may be induced.

Instruments and Apparatus.—Requisites for an ordinary laryngoscopic examination are: a good strong light, such as is obtained from a Welsbach burner covered by a Mackenzie condenser. It should be placed upon a suitable bracket, that it may be raised or lowered to any

desired height (see Fig. 282). A concave head mirror, 3 1/2 to 4 inches (9 to 10 cm.) in diameter with a central perforation for the eye; laryngeal mirrors of three sizes, 1/2, 1, and 1 1/2 inches (1.2, 2.5, and 3.7 cm.) in diameter, that they may be adapted to the size of the individual fauces; and an alcohol lamp (Fig. 372) complete the necessary equipment.

Asepsis.—The laryngeal mirrors should be sterilized by immersion in a 1 to 20 solution of carbolic acid, then rinsed off in sterile water and dried before use.

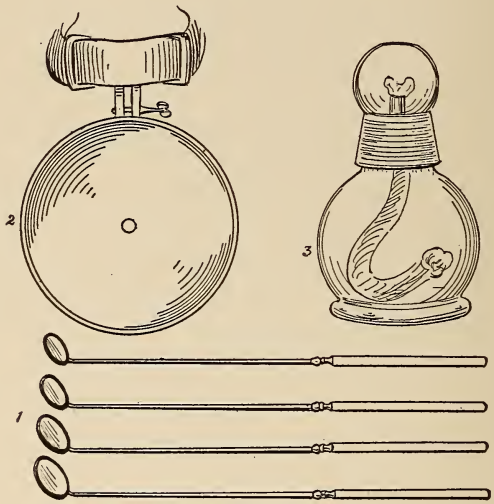


FIG. 372.—Instruments for laryngoscopy.
1, Laryngeal mirrors; 2, head mirror; 3, alcohol lamp.

Position of Patient and Examiner.—To obtain the best results, the examination should be performed in a partially darkened room. The patient sits in a straight-backed chair with the head raised and inclined slightly backward. The light is located upon the patient's right, a little behind him and about on a level with the ear. The operator sits facing the patient, with his knees to one or the other side of the patient's, and with his eye on a level with the patient's mouth, at a distance of about a foot (30 cm.), or the focal length of the mirror.

Anesthesia.—Ordinarily, cocainization of the parts is unnecessary, but, where the mucous membrane of the pharynx is very sensitive, brushing a 4 per cent. solution of cocain over the posterior pharyngeal wall and soft palate may be required before a satisfactory examination is possible.

Technic.—The operator places himself and patient in the proper positions, and adjusts the head mirror over the left eye in such a manner that the light will be reflected in a circle upon the mouth of the patient.

FIG. 373.—Laryngoscopy. First step, showing the method of grasping the tongue.

The patient is then directed to protrude the tip of the tongue, which is surrounded with a piece of clean gauze or small napkin and is grasped between the thumb and forefinger of operator's left hand (Fig. 373). Light traction is made outward and slightly upward rather than

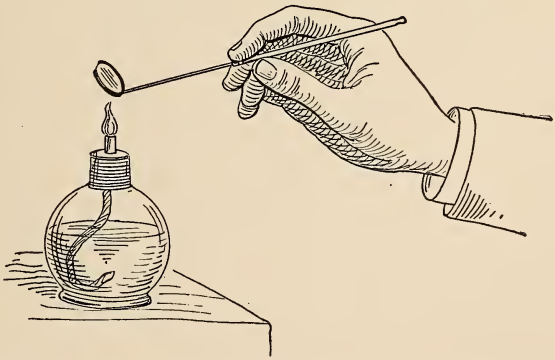


FIG. 374.—Laryngoscopy. Second step, heating the mirror.

downward, so as to avoid forcing the under surface of the tongue against the lower incisor teeth. The laryngeal mirror is then warmed to avoid condensation of moisture upon its reflecting surface, by

holding it a little distance over a flame for a few seconds (Fig. 374), *care being taken to test the temperature of the mirror before introducing it into the mouth;* this is determined by bringing the back of the mirror in contact with the back of the operator's hand. To introduce the

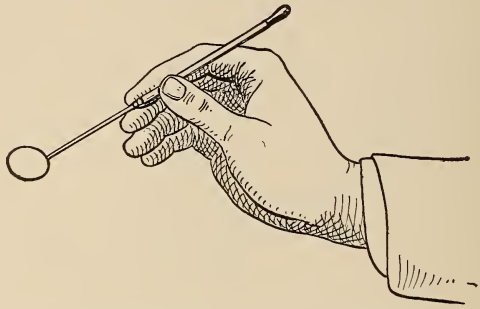


FIG. 375.—Showing the method of holding the mirror.

mirror, it should be held lightly between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand with its reflecting surface downward (Fig. 375), and should be made to follow the curve of the hard palate until its back touches the uvula and soft palate. It is then pushed upward and backward, raising the uvula as far out of the way as possible. Care

FIG. 376.—Laryngoscopy. Third step, showing the mirror being introduced and also the relative position of the patient and examiner and the position of the light.

must be taken in performing this maneuver to avoid touching the base of the tongue, and, when the mirror is in position, to keep it held steadily in place so as not to excite gagging or retching. Should this accident occur, the mirror must be removed and sufficient time must be

allowed to elapse for the patient to recover his breath and the irritability to subside before it is reintroduced. As soon as the instrument is in proper position, the handle is moved to one side of the patient's mouth so as to be well out of the line of vision. The mirror is then slowly and gently turned until a view of the base of the tongue is obtained, and any abnormalities of the organ are noted; it is then rotated in such a manner that its face looks downward and the larynx is brought to view (Fig. 377).

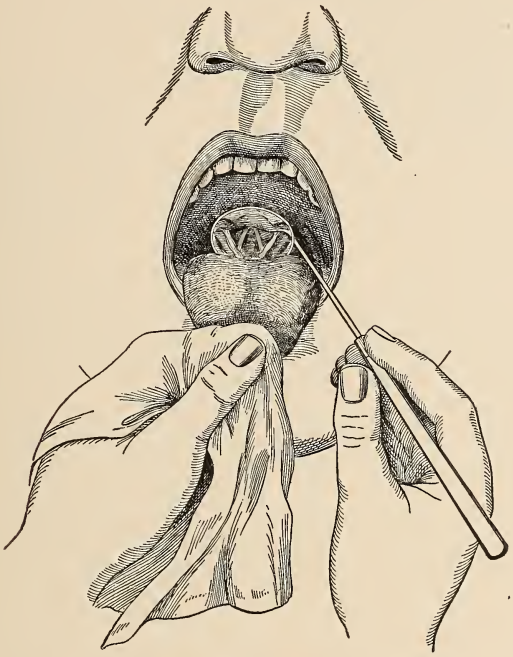


Fig. 377.—Laryngosccpy. Fourth step, showing the mirror in place. (J. M. Anders.)

It should be remembered that the laryngeal image will be inverted—that is, the structures of the front part of the larynx appear on the upper part of the mirror, and *vice versa;* the right and left sides of the laryngeal image, of course, correspond to the same sides of the patient. In a normal case, the following are noted: at the upper part of the picture, the saddle-shaped epiglottis of a yellowish color traversed by its pink blood-vessels; extending backward across the mirror back of the epiglottis are a pair of pearly-white bands, the vocal cords; parallel to the vocal cords, but lying anteriorly and outside, are a second pair of bands with a reddish hue, the ventricular bands, or false vocal cords; between the vocal cords and the ventricular bands

may be observed the ventricles of the larynx, brought into better view if the head is tilted to the side; where the vocal cords terminate at the lower part of the image are to be seen the arytenoid cartilages, and between them the interarytenoid space; extending from either side of this notch to join the epiglottis are the aryepiglottic folds, with the two prominences marking the site of the cartilages of Wrisberg and San-

Fig. 378.

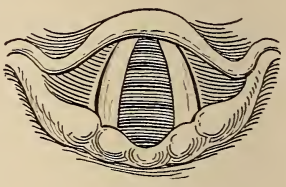


Fig. 379.

Fig. 378.—The laryngoscopic image. 1, Epiglottis; 2, false vocal cords; 3, vocal cords; 4, glossoepiglottic fossa; 5, interarytenoid space; 6, cartilage of Santorini and the location of the arytenoid cartilage; 7, cartilage of Wrisberg.

Fig. 379.—The larynx during gentle respiration.

torini, the latter lying on top of the arytenoid cartilages; on either side of the image will be noted the glossoepiglottic fossæ.

To make a complete examination, the larynx should be inspected during quiet respiration, deep respiration, and phonation. During respiration the vocal cords are seen to move with each expiration toward the median line, and away from the median line with inspiration

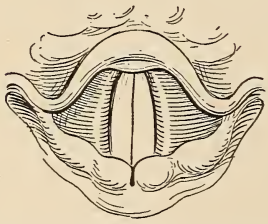


Fig. 380.—The larynx in phonation.

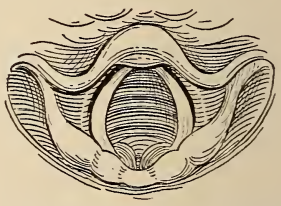


Fig. 381.—The larynx during deep respiration.

(Fig. 379). By requesting the patient to say "ee" or "he," a view is obtained of the larynx with the cords almost in apposition and the interarytenoid space obliterated (Fig. 380). During deep respiration the cords are widely separated, and a view is obtained of the anterior wall of the region below the vocal cords (Fig. 381). There will be

seen the broad yellow cricoid cartilage and the yellowish cartilaginous rings of the anterior wall of the trachea with the intervening red membranous portion. By tilting and carefully adjusting the mirror, the bifurcation of the trachea and the openings of the two bronchi may be brought into view. To obtain the most favorable position for inspection of the trachea, the patient's neck should be held straight and the chin extended somewhat forward. The mirror will also require a different adjustment, being held more horizontally than for laryngoscopy, and the surgeon should be seated lower.

The diseases that may affect this portion of the respiratory tract are not different from what one would find in other regions composed of the same tissues. The examiner should accordingly first note the color of the various parts brought to view for signs of congestion or inflammation, bearing in mind that if cocain has been employed the parts will appear anemic, and that gagging or retching may be responsible for congestion. He should look for the presence of exudations, foreign bodies, and any structural changes, such as ulcerations, swellings, abscesses, edema, new growths, malformations, and dislocations of the arytenoid cartilages, etc. Finally, the condition and mobility of the vocal cords during respiration and phonation are observed. They should approximate symmetrically in the mid-line during phonation, and separate equally with inspiration. Only by such tests may paralysis of the cords be recognized. The whole examination should be made as rapidly as possible, not more than half a minute or so being consumed, so as to avoid tiring the patient and inducing an irritable state of the parts. Since often only a glimpse of the parts may be thus obtained, it may be necessary to make more than one inspection before the whole examination is completed in a satisfactory manner.

Difficulties in Laryngoscopy.—It is sometimes a difficult matter for a beginner to inspect the parts, owing to faulty technic or to structural peculiarities of the parts. A view of the larynx may be missed entirely through an improper adjustment of the light, faulty position of the patient's head, or holding the mirror at a wrong angle. Clumsy and hasty introduction of the mirror, the use of a mirror too hot or too cold, or rough traction on the tongue, all militate against success. In some cases an excessive irritability of the pharynx precludes a successful examination without preliminary cocainization of the neighboring parts. In other cases the presence of enlarged tonsils may prevent a good view of the parts. If such a condition is present, a small oval mirror should be substituted. A large pendulous epiglottis

is not infrequently a cause of difficulty. By placing the mirror close to the posterior pharyngeal wall and holding it more nearly vertical than usual, with the patient's head thrown back, a better view may often be obtained.

In young children considerable difficulty may be encountered. It is best to wrap the child in a sheet so that the arms are restrained, and to have it held upon the lap of an assistant, who also steadies the child's head. A tongue depressor with a curved tip should be employed to hold the tongue forward, and if necessary a mouth-gag may be inserted between the teeth. A small laryngeal mirror is then introduced, and the examination is made in the usual way. If carefully and gently performed, a satisfactory examination may often be made even upon unruly children.

DIRECT LARYNGOSCOPY.

The larynx and portions of the air passages beyond may be examined under direct vision either by the aid of illuminated tubes or by means of a suitable tongue depressor and illumination from a head light, the latter a method designated by Kirstein as autoscopy. The parts inspected in this manner appear more nearly normal as to position and color than when a laryngeal mirror is employed. Further-

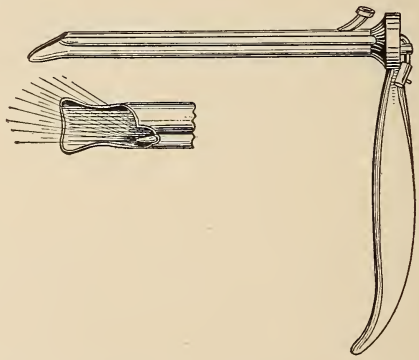


Fig. 382.—Jackson's self-illuminated tube spatula for direct laryngoscopy.

more, foreign bodies and new growths may be removed, and applications made to diseased areas under direct vision. The method may be employed in young children in whom ordinary laryngoscopy is difficult, and it may also be performed upon a patient under general anesthesia. It is, however, more uncomfortable for the conscious patient than ordinary laryngoscopy.

Instruments.—A tubular spatula, self-illuminated, such as Jackson's (Fig. 382), or with the illumination furnished from an electric head light, as Killian's, is generally employed. Kirstein uses a tongue depressor of special shape (Fig. 383) and an electric head light (Fig. 384). In addition a mouth-gag and a Sajous applicator are required (Fig. 385).

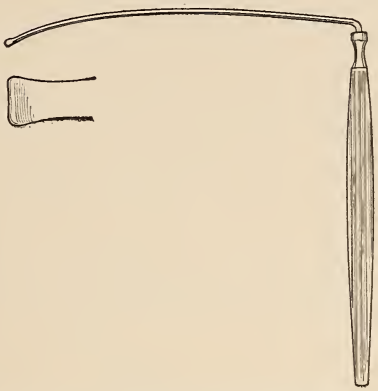


Fig. 383.—Kirstein's tongue depressor.

Asepsis.—The tubes and tongue depressor may be boiled, while the light-carrying apparatus in the self-illuminating tube is sterilized by immersion in alcohol.

Position of the Patient.—The patient is seated on a low stool with the upper part of the body bent slightly forward and with the head

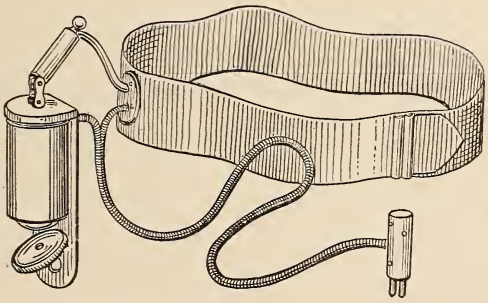


Fig. 384.—Kirstein's head light.

raised and thrown back so that a direct view from above downward is possible. An assistant stands or sits behind, supporting the patient's head, and holding the mouth-gag in proper position. The operator stands in front.

A child should be seated upon the lap of a nurse, who encircles its

body with her arms, confining the child's arms closely to its sides and clasping its legs between her knees. The child's head rests upon the nurse's shoulder, being held in the proper position from behind by an assistant.

Anesthesia.—Cocainization of the parts is usually necessary to avoid unpleasant gagging and retching. This is accomplished by the application to the larynx and neighboring parts of a 4 per cent. solution of cocain by means of a cotton swab held by a Sajous applicator. This should be performed by the aid of a laryngeal mirror. If operative procedures are required, the application of 20 per cent. solution of cocain should follow the preliminary cocainization. In young children the examination may be carried out under general anesthesia.

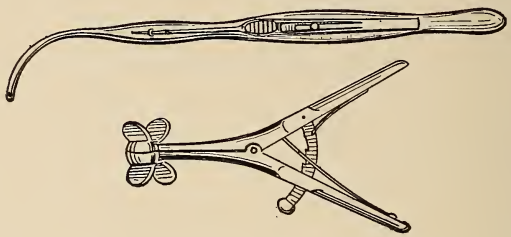


Fig. 385.—Sajous' applicator and mouth-gag.

Technic.—The operation should, when possible, be performed when the stomach is empty, as, otherwise, retching may result in regurgitation of the stomach contents. The parts having been cocainized, with the patient seated in the proper position, a mouth-gag is inserted in one side of the mouth and is held in place by the assistant who supports the head. With the lamp at the end of the instrument properly lighted, if a self-illuminating spatula is employed, or with the head lamp lit and adjusted so as to throw the light into the mouth, if a non-illuminated tube is used, the tubular speculum is introduced past the base of the tongue until the epiglottis appears. Its tip is passed to a point about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) below the free edge of the epiglottis, which is then drawn forward, and with it the base of the tongue out of the line of vision by exerting pressure upon the handle of the instrument in an upward and backward direction (Fig. 386).

The operator then inspects the larynx by looking down the tube. The arytenoid cartilages, vocal cords, interior of the larynx, and portions of the trachea may thus be viewed in detail. The points especially to be noted in such examination have already been referred to under laryngoscopy. By the aid of these tubes, applications may

also be made, if desired, to diseased areas, and growths may be removed by means of delicate instruments of special design.

In the method designated by Kirstein as autoscopy, the patient is placed in the same position as above, the mouth is illuminated from the electric head light, and the special tongue depressor is gently introduced behind the tongue until its tip rests between the epiglottis and the base of the tongue. By elevating the handle of the instrument, the base

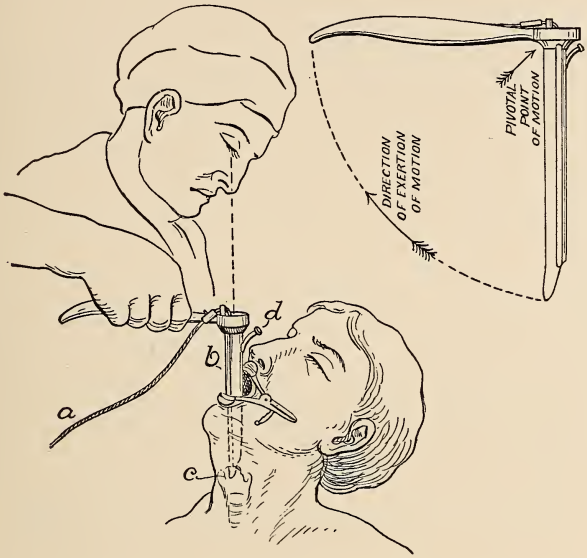


FIG. 386.—Direct laryngoscopy with Jackson's self-illuminated spatula. (Modified from (Ballenger.)

a, Electric cord supplying lamp of speculum; *b*, conduit for light carrying tube; *c*, shows the tip of the tube holding the epiglottis forward; *d*, conduit for removing secretions, etc., by aspiration during the examination.

of the tongue is drawn downward and forward, and the epiglottis is raised, so that a groove is formed along the back of the tongue. With the head light properly adjusted the operator looks down this groove and inspects the larynx. The posterior walls of the larynx and trachea are clearly viewed by this method, but the anterior parts are not seen so well as with the laryngoscopic mirror.

DIRECT TRACHEO-BRONCHOSCOPY.

In 1897 Killian devised long endoscopic tubes that could be introduced through the mouth or through a tracheotomy wound, with which the trachea and bronchi may be examined by the aid of illumina-

tion from an electric head light. This operation is designated respectively as "upper direct tracheo-bronchoscopy," and "lower direct tracheo-bronchoscopy." In this country, Chevalier Jackson has perfected similar tubes, in which, however, the illumination is supplied by a small electric light at the end of the instrument.

The bronchoscope is employed both for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes, and is of especial value in locating and removing foreign bodies and growths from the air passages, or in making direct applications to ulcers and other lesions in the trachea and bronchi. Marvelous results have been obtained by those expert in the use of these instruments, and foreign bodies have been frequently removed from the bronchi of patients upon whom thoracotomy would otherwise have been required. The use of the bronchoscope, however, requires such skill and practice as to be only of service in the hands of an accomplished specialist. *In unskilled hands it becomes a dangerous instrument.*

Tracheo-bronchoscopy through a tracheotomy wound is the simpler of the two methods, and, as larger tubes may be employed than in the upper operation, it is often of value for the removal of foreign bodies too large to be extracted by upper tracheo-bronchoscopy. Upper tracheo-bronchoscopy, however, should be the operation of choice when possible.

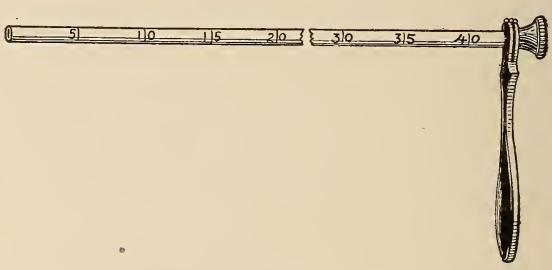


Fig. 387.—Killian's bronchoscope.

Instruments.—The tubes employed are of rigid metal highly polished internally, somewhat similar to the endoscopic tubes employed in the urethra. They vary in size according to the age of the patient and the part of the air passages to be explored. Only the smallest sized tubes should be used for the bronchi. Jackson employes for lower tracheo-bronchoscopy a tube 1/3 inch (8 mm.) in diameter by 8 inches (20 cm.) long for adults, and one 1/5 inch (5 mm.) in diameter by 5 1/2 inches (14 cm.) long for children; and for upper tracheo-bronchoscopy a tube 7/25 inch (7 mm.) in diameter by 18

inches (45 cm.) long for adults, and one 1/5 inch (5 mm.) in diameter by 8 inches (20 cm.) long for children.

In Killian's instruments (Fig. 387) illumination is supplied from an electric head light. In the Jackson tubes (Fig. 388) the illumination is supplied by a small electric light at the end of the instrument.

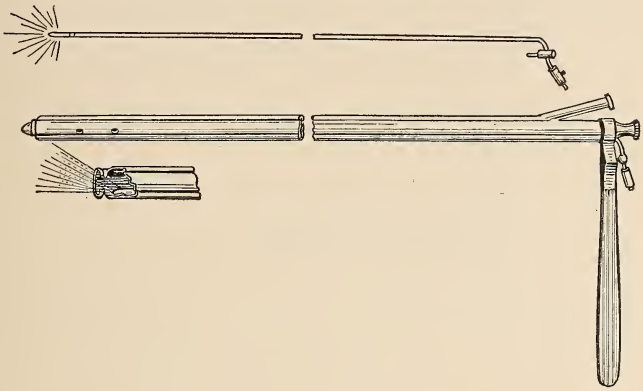


FIG. 388.—Jackson's bronchoscope.

These latter are somewhat easier to use than Killian's instruments. In addition, the Jackson instruments are provided with a conduit to which is attached a suction apparatus and exhaust pump, for the purpose of removing secretions that may collect and obscure the view (Fig. 389). For inserting these instruments, a special split tube (Fig. 390), resembling that used in direct laryngoscopy, is supplied, which

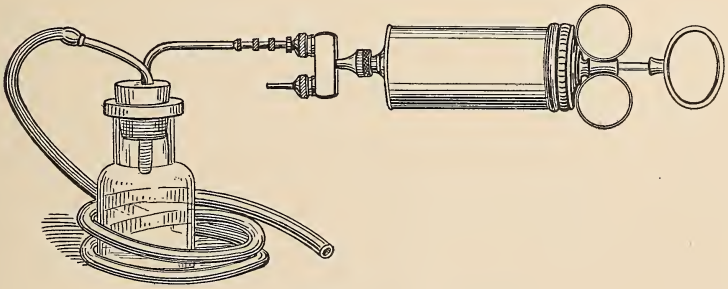


FIG. 389.—Jackson's secretion aspirator.

is removed in two halves after the bronchoscope has entered the glottis.

A portable battery with rubber-covered cords, a mouth-gag, a Sajous applicator, variously shaped forceps, applicators for applying cocain or drugs to the mucous membrane, hooks, etc., for the removal of foreign bodies through the instrument, and a tracheotomy set

(see page 394) are required. The operator should also be provided with a number of extra lamps to replace those that may burn out.

Asepsis.—Strict asepsis in all details is absolutely necessary. The

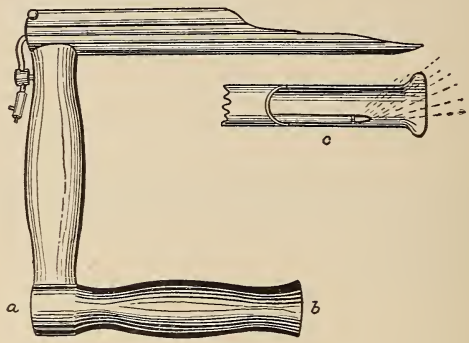


FIG. 390.—Jackson's separable speculum for passing the bronchoscope. The handle, *ab*, for use when the patient is in a sitting posture; *c* shows the arrangement of the lamp at the distal end.

tubes and accessory instruments are boiled, the lighting apparatus is sterilized by immersion in alcohol or in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution followed by rinsing in alcohol, and the rubber-covered battery cords are wiped off with bichlorid solution. The hands of the operator

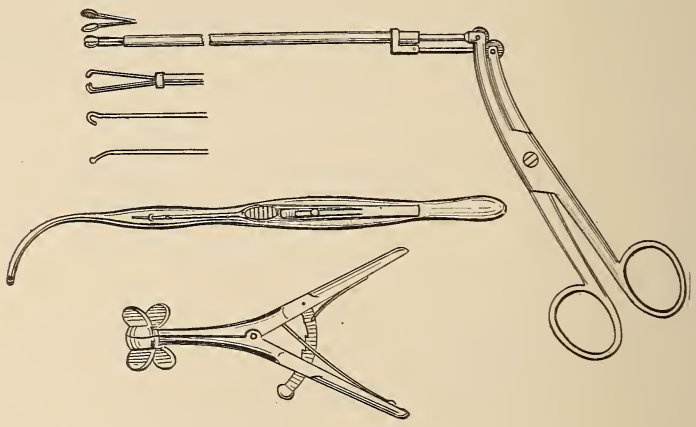


FIG. 391.—Accessory instruments for tracheo-bronchoscopy.

and assistants should be as thoroughly cleansed as for any operation. On account of the danger of sepsis from the mouth, the patient's teeth should be brushed and the mouth well cleansed with an antiseptic wash before passing the instruments. A tube employed in the upper

operation should not be used for lower bronchoscopy without resterilization.

Preparation of the Patient.—If general anesthesia is to be employed, the patient should be prepared according to the usual method (page 18). In any case, the operation should be performed on an empty stomach. For lower tracheo-bronchoscopy, the neck, if hairy, should be shaved and sterilized by washing with green soap and warm water, followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Fig. 392.—The position of the patient and the assistant for upper tracheo-bronchoscopy. (After Jackson.)

Position of the Patient.—If done under local anesthesia, upper tracheo-bronchoscopy may be performed with the patient in the upright position. The patient sits on a low stool, with the head extended backward as far as possible and the tongue projected forward. An assistant holds the head from behind and steadies the mouth-gag, while the operator stands in front. When a general anesthetic is employed, and in all cases of lower bronchoscopy, the patient should be in the dorsal position on a table, the front of which is slightly elevated, with the head hanging over the edge of the table, in which position it is supported by an assistant who takes care of the mouth-gag, as shown in Fig. 392.

Anesthesia.—In children, general anesthesia is necessary. In adults, preliminary cocainization of the pharynx and larynx with a 4 per cent. solution of cocain, followed by a 20 per cent. solution of cocain, applied to the larynx and trachea is in most cases sufficient, unless the patient is very excitable, although general anesthesia renders the operation easier in any case. Whichever is used, cocain should be applied by means of cotton applicators to the larynx and trachea before the introduction of the tube, to avoid dangerous reflexes from stimulation of the endings of the superior laryngeal nerve.

Technic.—1. *Upper Tracheo-bronchoscopy.*—With the patient in the proper position, and the parts cocainized, the mouth is widely opened

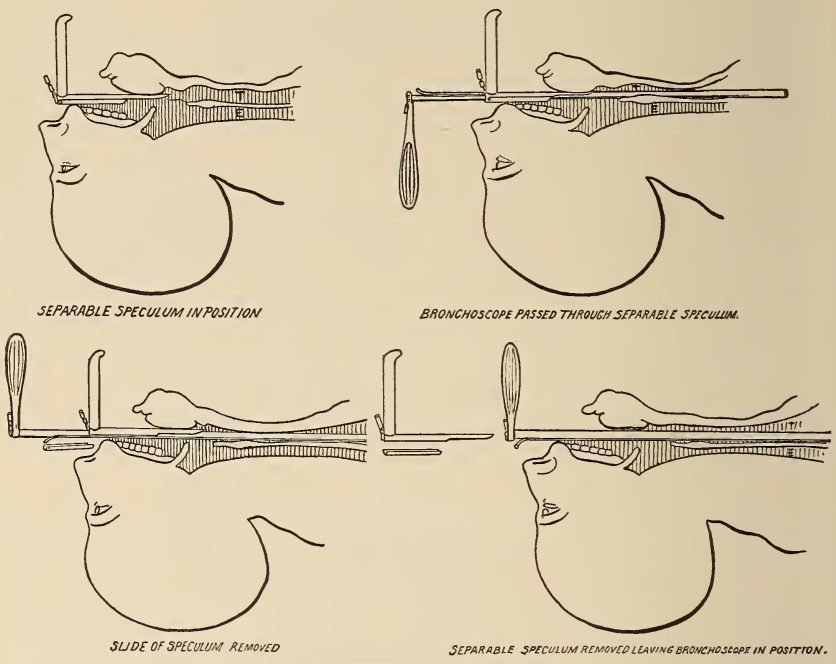


FIG. 393.—Showing the various steps in upper bronchoscopy. (After Jackson.)

and the mouth-gag is inserted and given to the assistant to maintain in position. The larynx and vocal cords are exposed by introducing a split tube spatula, as for direct laryngoscopy (page 366). The bronchoscope, well lubricated with sterile vaselin, and with the illumination properly turned on, is then passed through the split tube as far as the epiglottis under the guidance of the operator's eye. The operator notes the vocal cords and instructs the patient to breathe deeply, and, while the cords are open during inspiration, the instrument is gently

passed through the glottis until it enters the trachea. The split tube is then separated and removed. As the bronchoscope is advanced, the mucous membrane in front should be anesthetized by means of a 20 per cent. solution of cocain applied with cotton swabs on a long applicator. The instrument is thus slowly passed to the bifurcation of the trachea, and the parts are examined in detail as the tube advances.

To enter the right bronchus, the instrument should be turned toward the left angle of the patient's mouth, and toward the right side if the left bronchus is to be entered. By very careful and gentle manipulations with the tube, and by using the smallest sizes, the secondary and even the third division of the bronchi may be inspected by one especially skilled in this work.

During the examination, secretions or blood may be removed by means of cotton wrapped on long applicators or by the special aspirating apparatus supplied with the instrument, the manipulation of which

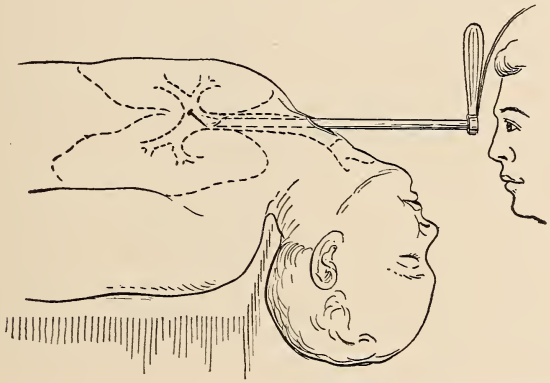


FIG. 394.—Lower bronchoscopy. (Modified from Ballenger.)

is entrusted to an assistant. In this way the entire mucous membrane lining the trachea may be examined, foreign bodies located and removed, and lesions treated by direct application.

2. *Lower Tracheo-bronchoscopy.*—Low tracheotomy is first performed as described on page 400. After all the bleeding has been controlled, a Trousseau dilator is inserted and the tracheal wound is held open. The mucous membrane of the trachea is then cocainized with a 20 per cent. solution of cocain. A short bronchoscope, with the illumination turned on, is then introduced, and the instrument is advanced under the guidance of the operator's eye, which is applied at the end of the instrument. As soon as the bifurcation of the trachea is reached, the tube may be directed into either bronchus by gentle

manipulation. The patient's head is turned sideways, and, if the right bronchus is to be entered, the tube is inserted on the left side of the head; if the left bronchus is to be examined, the tube is inserted at the right side of the head. The bronchi should be cocainized, as before, in advance of the instrument with cocain applied upon long applicators through the instrument, and the examination proceeded with as above.

The after-treatment of the patient consists in inserting a tracheotomy tube which is worn for several days. After the removal of this tube, the wound should be carefully protected by a gauze dressing and cleansed daily, being allowed to heal from the bottom up.

PALPATION BY THE PROBE.

Palpation by the probe is of value in determining the consistency and extent of new growths, the depth and size of ulcerations, the

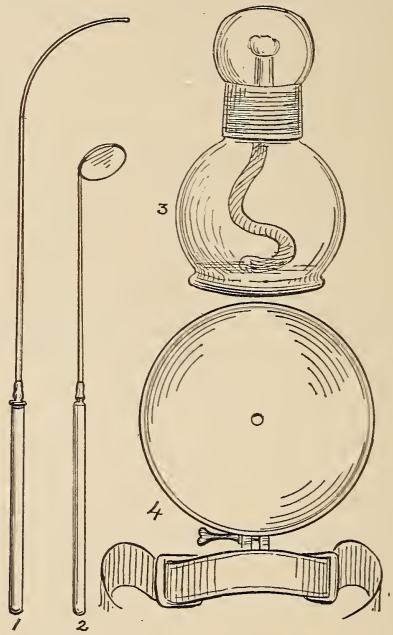


FIG. 395.—Instruments for probing the larynx.
1, Laryngeal probe; 2, laryngeal mirror; 3, alcohol lamp; 4, head mirror.

presence of necrosed cartilage, and the sensibility of the mucous membrane.

Instruments.—A laryngeal mirror, an alcohol lamp, a head light, and a laryngeal probe are necessary (Fig. 395).

Asepsis.—The probe should be boiled and the laryngeal mirror

sterilized by immersion in a 1 to 20 solution of carbolic acid, then rinsed off in sterile water and dried before use.

Position of Patient.—The patient is in the same position as for ordinary laryngoscopy.

Anesthesia.—The larynx should be cocainized by spraying or by the application of a 10 per cent. solution of cocain.

Technic.—The tongue is protruded and held by the patient with a cloth, and the laryngeal mirror is warmed and inserted in such a position that a good view of the larynx is obtained. The probe is held in the operator's right hand and is introduced into the patient's mouth turned on its side, with the laryngeal portion horizontal and the handle in the angle of the mouth until it almost reaches the posterior pharyngeal wall (see Fig. 396). It is then brought into the natural position, with the laryngeal portion vertical and the handle in the mid-line, the point of the instrument lying in the pharynx behind the epiglottis. By raising the handle of the instrument, the point is then brought forward over the arytenoids. By directing the point of the probe, guided by the image in the mirror, the diseased areas are then explored (see Fig. 397). In performing this manipulation, it must be remembered that the image in the mirror is reversed, so that movements of the instruments will likewise appear reversed, and that the distance between the arytenoids and the vocal cords is much greater than appears in the image.

In introducing any laryngeal instrument, such as applicators, brushes, forceps, etc., of the same shape as the laryngeal probe, that is, with long handles and a laryngeal piece at right angles, or nearly so, with the handle, the same technic should be employed; otherwise, if the instrument is introduced into the mouth with the laryngeal end held vertically, it is usually impossible to insert the laryngeal portion between the palate and base of the tongue.

SKIAGRAPHY.

Skiagraphy is employed as an adjunct to other diagnostic measures for locating metal and other foreign bodies which are impenetrable to the rays, and also for localizing certain growths of greater density than the surrounding tissues.

Therapeutic Measures.

THE LARYNGEAL SPRAY.

The laryngeal spray is employed for the purpose of cleansing and for medication. Cleansing of the larynx is frequently required for

the removal of purulent secretions the result of syphilitic or tubercular ulcerations, and to soften and wash away the crusts which are often an accompaniment of fetid laryngitis. Whenever possible, spraying of the larynx should be done by the surgeon himself, as it can thus be performed by the aid of direct vision in a thorough manner. If this is not possible, the patient must be very carefully instructed in the use of the instrument.

Medication of the larynx may be required in the treatment of acute and chronic inflammations, ulcerations, etc., and according to the indications of the individual case, remedies with an antiseptic, astringent, sedative, stimulating, or caustic action are employed. These may be used in the form of watery or oily solutions. The great sensitiveness of the laryngeal mucous membrane should be kept in mind in making any topical application, and the use of very irritating drugs should be avoided.

Instruments.—It is important to select a spray that will not expel the solution in such a powerful stream as to produce irritation and possibly add to the local inflammation. The Davidson, the Whitall Tatum (see Fig. 308), and the De Vilbiss atomizers (see Fig. 309) are simple and very efficient instruments. They should be provided with a laryngeal nozzle, which turns downward. The air current may be supplied by a rubber compression bulb or by means of a compressed-air apparatus (see Fig. 301).

A head mirror, a laryngeal mirror, and proper illumination will also be required when the spraying is to be done by the operator under direct vision.

Solutions.—For cleansing purposes, the alkaline solutions recommended on page 296 for use in the nose may be employed. For topical applications to the larynx, the formulæ of antiseptic, astringent, sedative, and stimulating solutions given on page 300, for use in the nose, may be employed according to the indications.

Temperature.—The solutions should always be used warm, at a temperature of about 100° F.

Anesthesia.—When the parts are very sensitive, preliminary spraying with a 10 per cent. solution of cocain may be required.

Technic.—The patient is directed to open his mouth widely and to protrude his tongue, which he may hold forward with the fingers of his right hand if desired. The operator then warms and introduces a laryngeal mirror, holding it so as to obtain a good view of the parts. Then, with his right hand, he introduces the spray nozzle into the mouth, and with the aid of the mirror passes it behind the epiglottis and

depresses the tip so that it points toward the diseased area. When the nozzle is in proper position, the mirror is removed and the bulb of the spray is sharply compressed, the patient being instructed to phonate while this is being done. The spray is then immediately removed, as the patient will cough and want to expectorate. When performed for cleansing purposes, the spraying should be repeated several times until the larynx is well washed out. Each time the patient coughs, mucus, purulent secretion, and crusts, which have been softened and separated by the spray, will be expelled.

When the spraying is carried out by the patient, the mouth is widely opened and the tongue protruded as before. The spray nozzle, held in the patient's right hand, is then introduced well back of the tongue, with the tip directed downward and forward over the larynx, and, while the patient phonates, the bulb is sharply compressed. In employing oily preparations, the patient should take an inspiration at the moment of compressing the bulb, so as to aid in drawing the solution into the larynx. Until the patient becomes skilled in the introduction of the spray, it is well for him to perform the operation standing in front of a mirror.

THE DIRECT APPLICATION OF REMEDIES.

This method is indicated when it is desired to apply remedies to some particular spot, especially when strong stimulants or caustics are used. Liquids may be applied by means of swabs or brushes. Solid caustics should be fused on a probe. The application should be made with the aid of a laryngeal mirror, and great care must be taken to avoid bruising the tissues or causing trauma.

Instruments.—For the application of liquids, a camel's-hair brush, mounted on a wire which is bent at right angles about 2 1/2 to 3 inches (6 to 7 cm.) from the end and inserted into a handle, a Sajous applicator (see Fig. 385), or an ordinary laryngeal applicator wrapped with cotton may be employed. In making use of the latter, care should be taken that the cotton is wrapped tightly about the end of the instrument, so that there is no danger of its falling off and slipping into the larynx.

Solid caustics, as silver nitrate and chromic acid, may be applied fused on the end of a laryngeal probe, as described on page 303.

Anesthesia.—The parts should be anesthetized by means of a 10 per cent. solution of cocain applied by means of a spray or on a cotton applicator.

Technic.—The laryngeal mirror is warmed and introduced by the operator's left hand, so as to obtain a clear view of the parts to be medicated. If secretion or mucus be present, the parts should be first

Fig. 396.—Method of inserting laryngeal applicator.

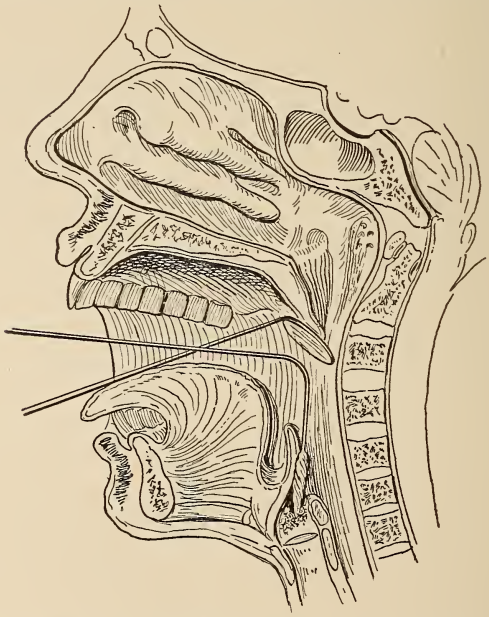


Fig. 397.—Shows the method of making direct applications to the larynx by the aid of the laryngeal mirror.

cleansed by spraying. The applicator is then dipped in the solution to be applied, and *any excess of fluid is removed* to prevent it from running into the trachea. This precaution is especially necessary when

using strong solutions or caustics. The instrument, held in the operator's right hand, is then introduced into the mouth, with the curved surface held first horizontally (Fig. 396), and then, as soon as the tip of the instrument reaches the pharynx, turned to a vertical position. The applicator is then guided to the desired spot by the aid of the laryngeal mirror (Fig. 397). The application should be made with great gentleness and care and the instrument quickly removed.

The application of acids is carried out in the same manner, any excess of acid being immediately neutralized by the application of a solution of bicarbonate of soda, gr. xxx (1.95 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.). A dusting powder may finally be applied to the cauterized area.

INSUFFLATIONS.

Powders may be applied to the larynx by means of a special insufflator. They are of use chiefly in cases of ulceration, where a sedative or antiseptic action is desired. A combination of nosophen,

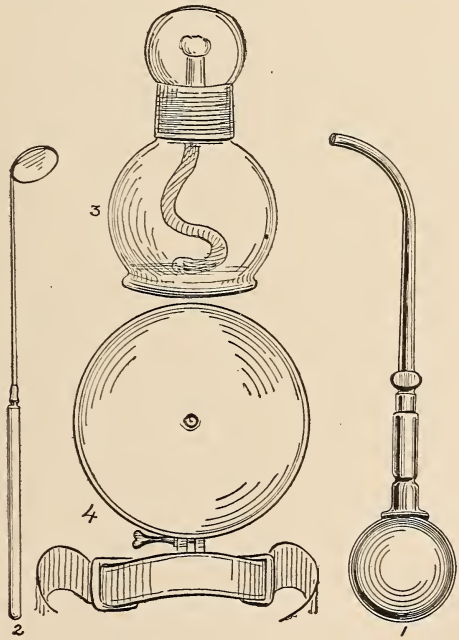


Fig. 398.—Instruments for applying powders to the larynx.
1. Powder blower; 2, laryngeal mirror; 3, alcohol lamp; 4, head mirror.

aristol, europhen, iodoform, etc., with finely powdered starch, stearate of zinc, or powdered acacia as a base, are usually employed in the proportion of one part of the active principle to two parts of the base.

Small amounts of morphin or cocain may also be combined with the base and applied, when indicated, for the relief of pain.

Instruments.—A laryngeal powder blower, a head light, a laryngeal mirror, an alcohol lamp, and suitable illumination are necessary. The insufflator shown in Fig. 398 is very convenient, as with it the amount of powder may be accurately measured, and the instrument may be manipulated with one hand.

Technic.—The laryngeal mirror is warmed and properly inserted into the pharynx, so that a good view of the parts to be medicated is obtained. The insufflator, filled with the desired amount of powder, is inserted in the mouth and carried back to the larynx under the guidance of the image in the mirror. When in proper position, a sudden compression on the bulb forces out the powder and deposits it on the diseased surface. If it is desired to carry the powder deep into the larynx, the patient should be requested to phonate at the moment of compressing the bulb.

STEAM INHALATIONS.

By means of steam inhalations the active principle of certain drugs that are readily volatilized by heat may be brought into contact with the mucous membrane of the respiratory tract and carried beyond the larynx to the trachea and bronchi. The effect of the steam itself is also valuable, for it acts as an anodyne upon inflamed mucous membranes by supplying moisture and so relieving the heat and dryness of congestion. In the latter stages of an inflammation the steam, furthermore, dilutes and assists in removing secretions. Steam inhalations are thus of great value in congestion and edema of the larynx, croup, membranous laryngitis, and bronchitis. They are especially serviceable in softening the thick tenacious secretion of chronic laryngitis.

The Inhalers.—When it is simply intended to convey the vapor to the vicinity of the patient, a croup kettle with a long spout, such as shown in Fig. 399, is most convenient. For direct inhalation, more or less elaborate forms of apparatus are manufactured (Fig. 400), but a coffee-pot with a funnel of heavy paper placed in the top makes a simple and efficient inhaler (Fig. 401).

Formulary.—Sedative, stimulating, or antiseptic drugs are the ones usually employed for inhalation. These include tincture of benzoin compound in the strength of 1 ʒ (3.75 c.c.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.); creosote, 5 to 10 ♏ (0.30 to 0.60 c.c.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.);

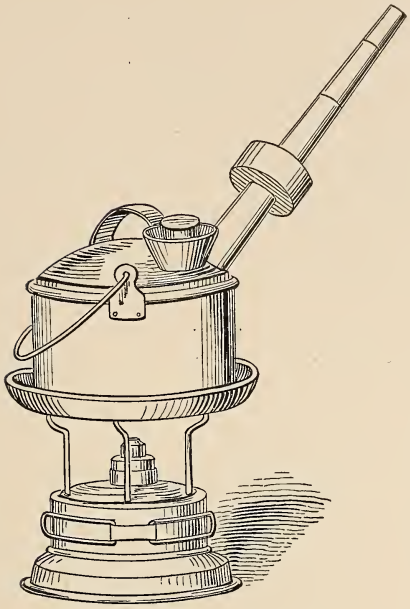


Fig. 399.—Croup kettle.

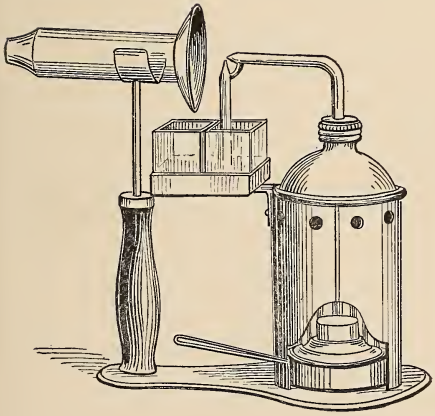


Fig. 400.—Steam atomizer.

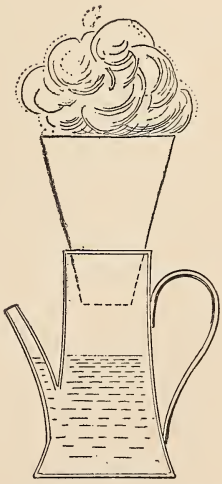


Fig. 401.—Steam inhaler improvised from a coffee-pot.

ol. cubebæ, 5 ♏ (0.30 c.c.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.); spirits camphori, 5 ♏ (0.30 c.c.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.); ol. pinus sylvestris, 5 ♏ (0.30 c.c.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.), etc.

Temperature.—When directly inhaled, the vapor should not be of a higher temperature than 150° F. If used at too high a temperature, irritation of the mucous membrane may be produced and there is danger of the steam scalding the face.

Technic.—Into an inhaler a pint (473.11 c.c.) of nearly boiling water is placed and the proper quantity of the drug is added. The

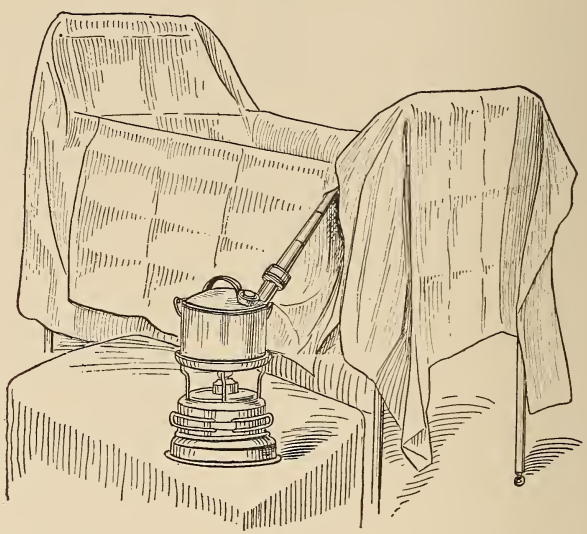


FIG. 402.—Crib arranged for steam inhalations. (After Kerley.)

patient then places his nose over the cone and inhales the escaping vapor, taking about six to eight breaths a minute. The inhalation should not be continued for more than five or ten minutes at a time. It may be employed three or four times daily. The treatment should be carried out in a warm room, *i.e.*, at a temperature of about 68° F., and care should be taken to protect the patient from draughts. As the steam relaxes the mucous membrane and renders the patient susceptible to cold, he should not be allowed out of doors for several hours afterward.

In using the croup kettle, the steam may be delivered into the room or directly over the patient. When the latter method is used, it is well to cover the bed of the patient with a sheet arranged in the form of a tent and raised sufficiently high to permit a free circulation of air,

the nozzle of the croup kettle being inserted under one side of the tent and the water kept boiling (Fig. 402).

DRY INHALATIONS.

These are useful in diseases of the upper respiratory tract for those who cannot tolerate the steam inhalations. The method has an advantage over steam inhalations in that the patient does not have to remain in the house afterward.

The Inhaler.—A special mask made of woven metal, which accurately fits the mouth and which is provided with a sponge upon which the medication is dropped, is employed (Fig. 403).

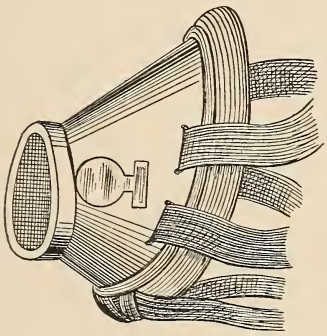


Fig. 403.—Inhalation mask.

Formulary.—Any of the very volatile oils, such as thymol, menthol, eucalyptol, etc., may be employed.

Technic.—Twenty or thirty drops (1.20 to 1.80 c.c.) of the oil are placed upon the sponge of the mask and the latter is placed over the patient's face and is secured by strings fasted back of the head and neck. The patient inhales through the mask by means of the mouth, and exhales through the nose. The mask may be worn for about half an hour two or three times a day.

INTUBATION OF THE LARYNX.

Intubation of the larynx is an operation devised by O'Dwyer which consists in the introduction of a tube into the larynx for the purpose of permitting free respiration in the presence of obstruction in the larynx or upper portion of the trachea. It is an operation which gives prompt relief without the necessity of cutting and without producing any loss of blood or shock. It is less terrifying to the patient

than the tracheotomy and the after-care is not so troublesome. Anesthesia is not required nor is any previous preparation of the patient necessary. Special instruments, however, are necessary, and the feeding of the patient is often troublesome and, while not a difficult operation in itself, it requires special training for its skilful performance which is best learned by practice upon the cadaver.

Indications.—The operation was originally devised for the relief of obstruction to respiration in cases of laryngeal diphtheria and has now almost entirely supplanted tracheotomy in such cases. The immediate indications are dyspnea accompanied by cyanosis, depres-

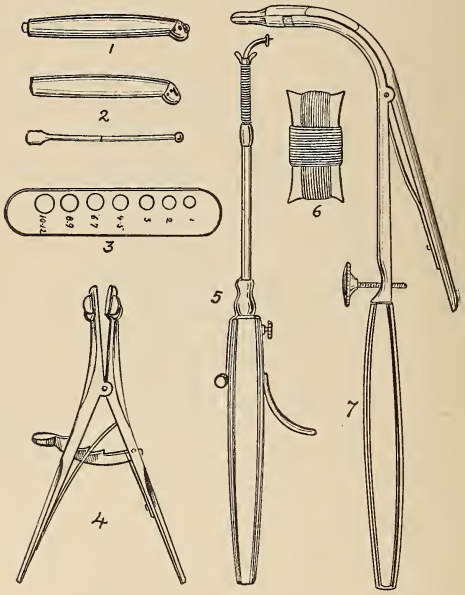


FIG. 404.—O'Dwyer intubation instruments.
1, Tube with obturator in place; 2, tube and obturator separated; 3, gauge; 4, mouth gag; 5, introducer; 6, silk thread; 7, extractor.

sion of the suprasternal and supraclavicular spaces on inspiration, and sinking in of the lower portion of the chest. Intubation is also employed in laryngeal stenosis from other causes for the purpose of producing gradual dilatation of the parts, progressively increasing sizes of tubes being introduced and worn for a few days at a time.

Instruments.—The instruments required are an O'Dwyer intubation set including seven metal or hard-rubber tubes, an introducer, an extractor, a mouth gag, and a gauge indicating the size of the tubes, according to the age of the patient (Fig. 404). Although these instru-

ments have been modified and attempts have been made to improve upon them, those originally designed by O'Dwyer give the best results.

The intubation tube has an expanded head prolonged backward in the form of a flange to prevent it from slipping through the vocal cords and a fusiform bulb in the middle to aid in keeping the tube in position. In the anterior portion of the head a perforation is provided for the attachment of a piece of silk thread. The lower end of the tube is rounded off and oval. Each tube is provided with an obturator which can be screwed on to the introducer. The free extremity of the obturator ends in a protuberance which projects beyond the tube and prolongs the latter into a rounded extremity to aid in its introduction.

The introducer, or intubator, consists of a handle in which is set a rod, to the extremity of which the obturator may be screwed. A sliding joined tube fits over this, which can be pushed forward by a small knob set on the handle of the instrument, thereby detaching the intubation tube from the obturator when the former is in proper position in the larynx.

The extractor, or extubator, is an instrument supplied with jaws which fit into the lumen of the tube, and when opened by pressure upon a lever engage the tube with sufficient force to permit its removal from the larynx.

Position of the Patient.—The child, with its arms at its sides, is wrapped from chin to foot in a sheet or blanket and is supported upon the lap of a nurse in a sitting posture facing the operator with its feet held between the nurse's knees and its head resting on her right shoulder. An assistant should stand behind and grasp the child's head firmly, lifting upward as though holding the child by the head, thus extending the child's head as far as possible. Some operators, however, prefer to intubate with the patient in a horizontal position and with a small sand-bag placed under the back of the neck.

Technic.—A tube of a size corresponding to the age of the patient is selected and is properly threaded with a piece of silk 2 or 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) long. Then, with the obturator in place, the tube is screwed on the introducer in such a manner that its projecting flange lies behind and faces away from the operator. The mouth gag is next inserted between the patient's jaws on the left side and is held in place by the assistant who supports the child's head. The operator, with his eyes, nose, and mouth protected against possible infection in diphtheria cases, faces the patient and inserts his left index-finger into the mouth, hooking up the epiglottis (Fig. 406). In doing this care should be taken to keep the finger to the left side and out of the

way as much as possible. The operator then takes the introducer with the tube attached in his right hand, holding it as follows: The thumb pressed against the button on the upper side of the handle, the index-finger around the hook on the under surface of the instrument,

FIG. 405.—Position of child for intubation and method of holding.

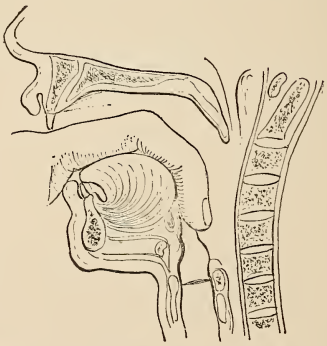


FIG. 406.—Intubation. First step, showing the method of drawing the epiglottis forward.

and the loop of silk wound over his little finger, as shown in Fig. 407. He then slowly introduces the tube into the mouth in the median line, hugging the center of the tongue and keeping the handle of the instrument at first well down on the chest of the patient (Fig. 408).

When the end of the tube reaches the epiglottis (Fig. 409), the handle is sharply elevated, so that the tube is brought into a vertical position (Fig. 410). If the handle of the instrument is not sufficiently elevated,

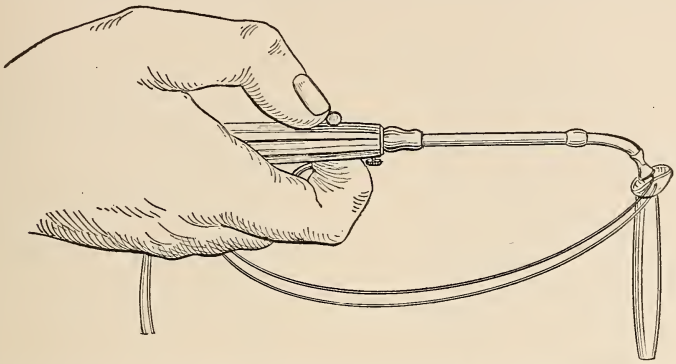


FIG. 407.—Showing the intubation tube on the introducer and the method of holding the latter.

the tube will point toward the entrance of the esophagus which it will be apt to enter during the next maneuvers (Fig. 411). At the same time the finger of the operator is moved to the posterior portion of the larynx, resting on the arytenoid cartilages to prevent the tube from

FIG. 408.—Intubation. Second step, introducing the tube into the patient's mouth.

entering the esophagus. The tube is then gently pushed through the chink of the glottis and on into the larynx, guided by the operator's finger. No force whatever should be used.

As soon as the tube is in proper position, the operator's forefinger is placed on its head holding it in place while the button on the handle of the instrument is pushed forward, thus disengaging the obturator from the tube (Fig. 412). The intubator with the obturator attached

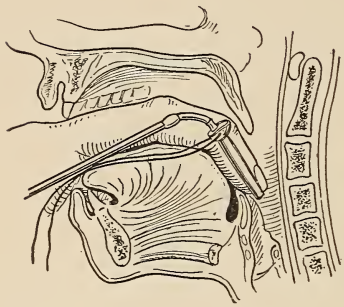


Fig. 409.—Third step in intubation.

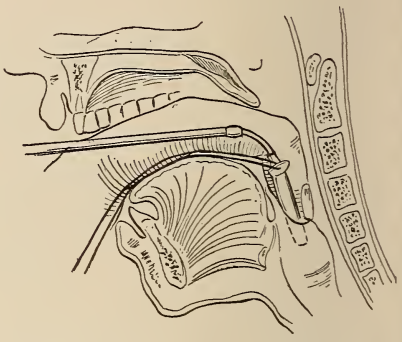


Fig. 410.—Fourth step in intubation.

is then removed, and the tube is pushed well into the larynx by the finger (Fig. 413). Not more than five to ten seconds should be consumed in introducing the tube, for while this is being done breathing is interfered with; if the tube cannot be promptly inserted, the operation

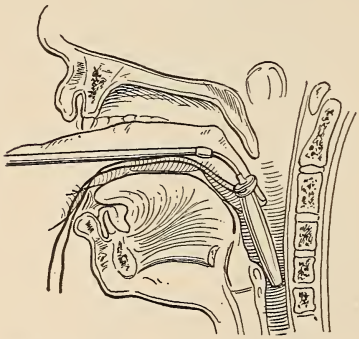


Fig. 411.—Showing a faulty position of the tube, due to the handle of the introducer not being raised sufficiently high.

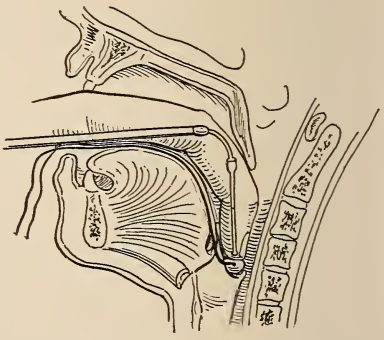


Fig. 412.—Fifth step in intubation, withdrawing the introducer while the index-finger holds the tube in place.

should be suspended and a second attempt made after allowing the child time to recover its breath.

If the tube is properly placed, there may be at first some cough, but the breathing rapidly becomes easier, and the cyanosis is quickly relieved. After the tube is in position, it is well to wait for ten or

fifteen minutes, to make sure that there is no obstruction to free respiration. When certain that the tube is properly placed in the larynx, the mouth gag is reinserted, and one strand of silk is cut near the angle of the mouth, and the string is withdrawn, the forefinger being placed on

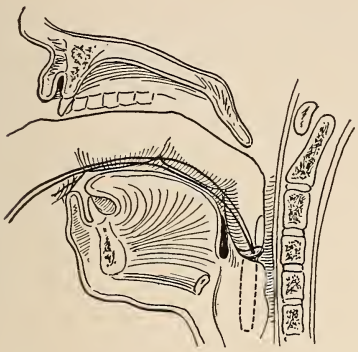


FIG. 413.—Sixth step in intubation, showing the index-finger pushing the tube well into the larynx.

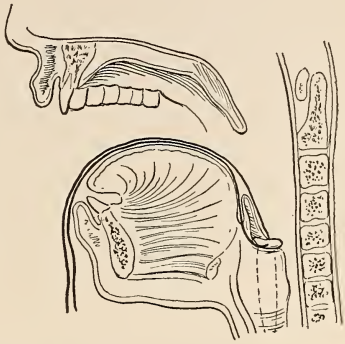


FIG. 414.—Showing the intubation tube in place.

the tube to maintain it in position (Fig. 415). Some operators prefer to leave the string attached for the removal of the tube in case of sudden emergency. If this is done, the string should be brought out the corner of the mouth, hooked over the ear, and secured by adhesive

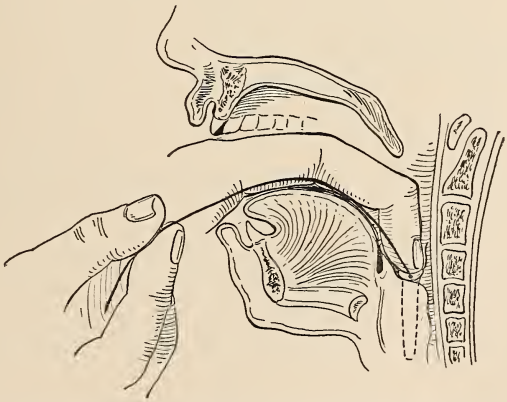


FIG. 415.—Final step in intubation, removing the string from the tube.

plaster. This method has the disadvantage, however, of furnishing a chance for the child to remove the tube if it gets hold of the string.

Should the tube be placed in the esophagus by mistake, there will be no relief to the dyspnea and the cyanosis, there will be an absence

of cough, and the string of silk will be seen to gradually shorten as the tube passes down the esophagus. In such a case, the tube should be removed by pulling on the string, and, after waiting a sufficient time for the patient to recover from the excitement attending the operation, it should be reintroduced.

In some instances, the tube may become occluded by pushing the false membrane ahead of it. If this occurs, the tube should be removed at once, and, if the obstructing membrane is not expelled from the larynx and cannot be extracted and suffocation seems imminent,

Fig. 416.—Method of feeding an intubation patient with the head lowered.

tracheotomy should be performed. Care should be taken not to select too small a tube, for it may be expelled by coughing or may escape into the trachea.

Feeding Intubated Patients.—The tube renders swallowing difficult, and the patients are only able to take liquid or, at most, semisolid food. As a rule, by having the patient lie with the head lowered, fluids will pass along the roof of the mouth to the posterior pharyngeal wall, and will enter the esophagus, and, if given slowly, sufficient food may be administered in this way (Fig. 416); or food may be administered

by having the patient suck up the food through a tube while lying face downward upon the lap of a nurse. In some cases, where the patient refuses food, liquids may be administered by means of the stomach-tube passed through the mouth or by means of a soft-rubber catheter passed into the stomach through the nose (page 465), though by the continued use of the latter method there is danger of producing infection of the middle ear. Rectal feeding may be combined with the above if indicated.

When to Remove the Tube.—The tube should always be removed as soon as possible, as its prolonged use may produce ulceration of the larynx. In cases of diphtheria, where antitoxin has been administered, the tube may be removed in three to seven days, depending to some extent upon the age of the patient, being left in for longer intervals in

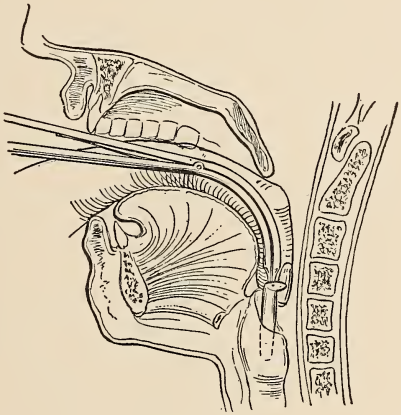


Fig. 417.—Extubation.

very young children. If the tube becomes occluded at any time, it must be removed without delay, cleaned, and then reintroduced. When the tube is to be permanently removed, the physician, after extracting it, should wait sufficiently long to see that respiration does not become impeded and necessitate its reintroduction.

Technic of Extubation.—The patient is placed and held in the same position as for introduction of the tube. The mouth gag is inserted, and the operator passes his left index-finger into the mouth and over the epiglottis until it rests on the head of the tube. The extubator, held in the operator's right hand, is then introduced with its jaws closed, by the same maneuvers employed in introducing the intubator, until its tip is felt by the finger on the tube. It is then carefully guided into the lumen of the tube. By pressing the lever on

top of the handle, the jaws of the instrument are separated and obtain a secure hold on the tube, so that it may be easily withdrawn (Fig. 417). To accomplish this, the tube must be lifted at first vertically upward. The handle of the instrument is then depressed, and the tube is brought out by a reversal of the movements of intubation.

In an emergency, when the tube becomes obstructed, it may be possible to remove it by enucleation, especially if the tube be short. This consists in placing the thumb of the right hand on the larynx beneath the end of the tube while the patient's head is extended, and with a quick motion of the head forward, at the same time exerting upward pressure on the larynx, the tube is expelled into the mouth.

TRACHEOTOMY.

The term tracheotomy is generally used to designate the opening into the air-passages at some point between the sternum and thyroid cartilage. To be exact, however, the term should be limited to operations below the cricoid cartilage, while above that point, that is, in the cricothyroid space, the operation is called laryngotomy. Tracheotomy is subdivided into the high operation when the opening is made above the isthmus of the thyroid gland, and into low tracheotomy when the operation is performed below this point.

Indications.—Opening into the air-passages is indicated for the relief of obstructive dyspnea, which may be the result of any one of the following conditions: The formation of pseudomembrane; the presence of foreign bodies; the presence of growths within the larynx or trachea or external to these structures; edema of the larynx; spasm of the larynx; rapid swelling of the tonsils and pharynx; injuries to the larynx and trachea, such as contusions, fractures, burns, cicatricial stenosis, etc. For the relief of obstruction from diphtheritic membranes, however, intubation should, as a rule, be the operation of choice, tracheotomy being reserved for those cases where intubation fails, as when the membrane extends down low in the trachea, and where the attending physician does not possess the necessary skill for intubation, or where the necessary instruments for intubation are not available. Tracheotomy may also be required for the removal of foreign bodies from the larynx, trachea, and bronchi, for the administration of tracheal anesthesia in operations upon the mouth, pharynx, jaws, or larynx, and as a preliminary to laryngectomy and lower tracheo-bronchoscopy.

Choice of Operation.—The choice between laryngotomy, high

tracheotomy, and low tracheotomy depends upon the seat of the obstruction and also upon the age of the patient and the necessity for haste. Of the three, laryngotomy is the most easily and rapidly performed. It thus becomes the operation of choice in a sudden emergency where the obstruction is located in the larynx and where there is demand for haste in order to avoid imminent suffocation or where the proper instruments and assistants are lacking. It is not, however, a suitable operation to be performed upon those under thirteen years of age, on account of the small size of the cricothyroid space, nor should it be performed for the relief of conditions requiring the wearing of a tube for any length of time, on account of the proximity of the vocal cords and their liability to injury by the tube.

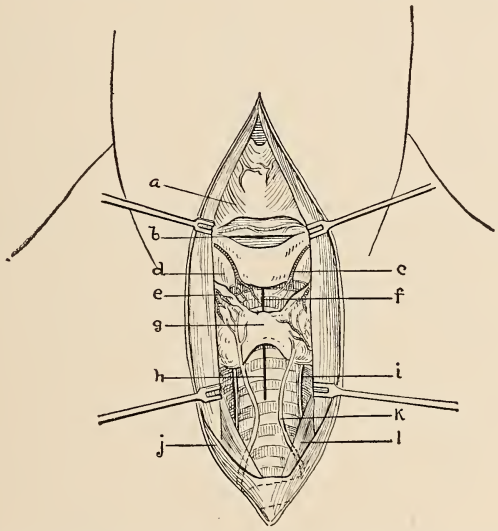


FIG. 418.—The location of the incisions in laryngotomy and tracheotomy. (After Bickham.)
a, Thyroid cartilage; *b*, incision for laryngotomy; *c* and *e*, branches of superior thyroid arteries; *d*, cricoid cartilage; *f*, incision for high tracheotomy; *g*, thyroid gland; *h*, incision for low tracheotomy; *i*, pneumogastric nerve; *j*, sterno-mastoid muscle; *k*, inferior thyroid veins; *l*, sterno-thyroid muscle.

On account of the small number of important vessels encountered, and the greater ease with which the trachea is reached, high tracheotomy is preferable to the low operation where the location of the trouble permits. It is the operation of choice for children and in cases of diphtheria where a tube has to be worn for some time.

Low tracheotomy may be required for the removal of foreign bodies from the bronchi, for lower tracheo-bronchoscopy, for the relief of threatened suffocation from occlusion of the trachea by tumors of

the thyroid, etc. It requires more skill in its performance than does the high operation, as in the lower portion of the neck the trachea is more deeply placed and important structures at the root of the neck are in close proximity.

Instruments.—The instruments that should be provided include: a scalpel, a narrow bistoury, scissors, two sharp retractors, two tenacula, artery clamps, two pair of thumb forceps, tracheal forceps, a Trousseau tracheal dilator, a flexible-rubber catheter, tracheotomy

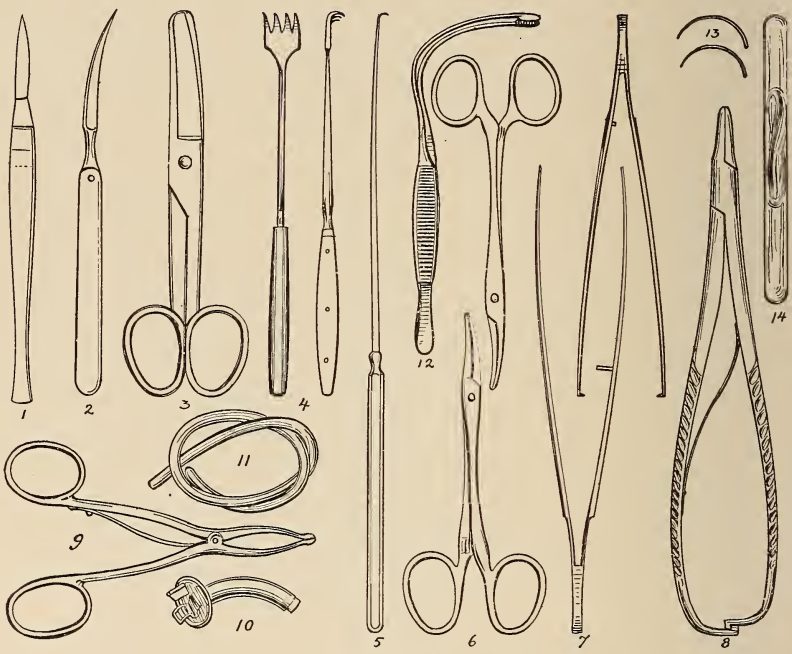


Fig. 419.—Instruments for tracheotomy.

1, Scalpel; 2, curved bistoury; 3, scissors; 4, retractors; 5, tenaculum; 6, artery clamps; 7, thumb forceps; 8, needle-holder; 9, Trousseau tracheal dilator; 10, tracheotomy tube; 11, catheter; 12, tracheal forceps; 13, needles; 14, No. 2 catgut.

tubes and tape, a needle-holder, two curved cutting-edge needles, and No. 2 catgut for ligatures and sutures (Fig. 419). In an emergency, where delay would mean the loss of the patient's life, the operation may be performed by the aid of a pocket-knife and two hairpins bent in the shape of a hook to hold the trachea open until the proper tube can be obtained.

Tracheotomy tubes of several sizes and with different curves should be provided so that one suitable for the individual case may be at hand. A silver tube, somewhat flattened from side to side, without fenestræ,

and with a movable inside tube, is preferable (Fig. 420). With some tubes an obturator is supplied as an aid to insertion. For an adult, a No. 5 or 6 tube will usually suffice; for a child under two, a No. 2 tube should be provided; for a child from two to four, a No. 3; and for one over four, a No. 4. In an emergency a tube may be improvised

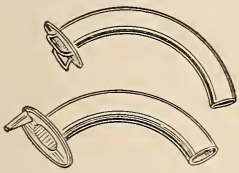


Fig. 420.—Tracheotomy tube (enlarged).

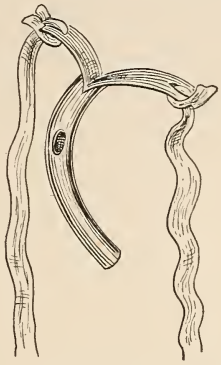


Fig. 421.—Tracheotomy tube improvised from rubber tubing.

by bending a piece of rubber tubing into the required shape, as shown in Fig. 421. For laryngotomy, a tube shorter than the ordinary tracheotomy tube, and flattened from before backward, is employed.

Position of the Patient.—This should be such as to bring the neck into the greatest possible prominence. The patient is therefore

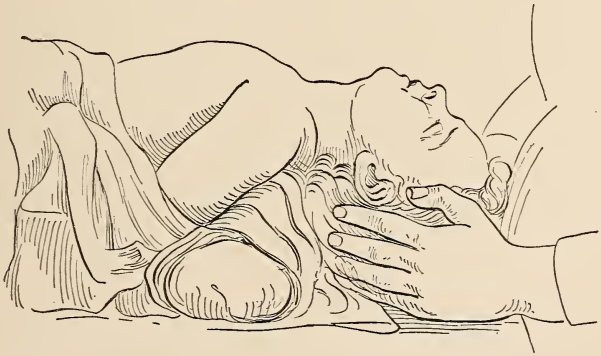


Fig. 422.—Position of patient for laryngotomy and tracheotomy.

placed in a strong light on a firm flat table with a cushion under his shoulders, thus allowing the head to hang back, but not so far as to put the trachea under tension or to flatten it and impede respiration (Fig. 422). In an emergency, the patient's head may be simply allowed to hang over the edge of the table or a lounge.

A child should be wrapped in a blanket or sheet, with its arms at the sides. The legs should also be secured and an assistant should be provided to hold the head in proper position.

Anesthesia.—In adults, local anesthesia with cocain is sufficient. A 0.2 per cent. solution is employed for the skin, and a 0.1 per cent. solution for deeper infiltration. When there is occasion for great haste in the presence of unconsciousness or dyspnea with marked and increasing cyanosis, an anesthetic may be dispensed with, as in such cases the sense of pain is much blunted or abolished.

In young children, local anesthesia is not followed by good results, as the infiltration alone terrifies the child and produces struggling, which adds to the dyspnea. If air enters the lungs at all, chloroform given slowly is the best anesthesia, ether being apt to irritate the mucous membrane and produce laryngeal spasm, thus adding to the dyspnea.

Preparations.—If hairy, the neck should be shaved. The skin is sterilized by washing with soap and water followed by the use of a 1 to 2000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The instruments are sterilized by boiling or, in an emergency, by immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution. The hands of the operator and his assistants should be prepared with the same care as for any operation.

Technic.—1. *Laryngotomy.*—The thyroid and cricoid cartilages are identified, and, with the larynx supported between the thumb and forefinger of the operator's left hand, an incision about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) long is made through the skin, exactly in the median line of the neck, extending from the lower portion of the thyroid cartilage to below the cricoid cartilage. The superficial fascia, platysma, and deep fascia are divided, and the sternohyoid and sternothyroid muscles are separated at their inner borders and held apart by retractors. The connective tissue and veins underlying these structures are then separated, all veins being clamped or ligated before division. The cricothyroid membrane is thus brought into view. The thyroid cartilage is firmly steadied with a tenaculum, while the cricothyroid membrane is transversely incised by means of a sharp, narrow-pointed bistoury near the upper border of the cricoid cartilage, so as to avoid the cricothyroid artery, which runs along the upper border of the space below the thyroid cartilage (Fig. 423). If the situation of this vessel is such that injury to it or its branches cannot be avoided, it should be tied between two ligatures before the membrane is incised. In opening the membrane, the incision must be carried deep enough to include the mucous membrane lining it, otherwise the laryngotomy tube may

be pushed in between the two structures and not into the larynx at all. The wound is held apart with two small retractors or a tracheal dilator, and the foreign body which may be causing the obstruction is removed by means of tracheal forceps. If there is not sufficient room to remove the foreign body through this incision, the cricoid cartilage may be cut. The laryngotomy tube is then carefully introduced and is secured in place by tapes passing around the patient's neck, a small square pad, split to its center, being interposed between the skin and the flange of the tube. A stitch or two may be placed at the

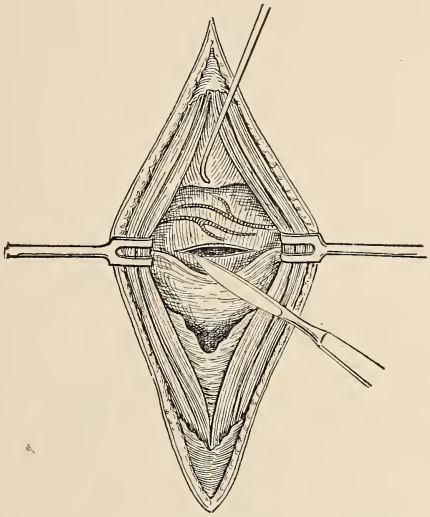


Fig. 423.—Opening the cricothyroid membrane in laryngotomy. (After Bickham.)

upper and lower angles of the wound to bring them together, if necessary. Even where the obstruction is immediately relieved, it is preferable in any case to insert a tube for a time until the tissues are more or less adherent, so as to avoid subcutaneous emphysema.

2. *High Tracheotomy.*—The thyroid cartilage is grasped between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, so as to steady the trachea, and with the right hand a vertical incision 1 1/2 to 2 inches (4 to 5 cm.) long is made exactly in the median line, extending from the cricoid cartilage to a little below the isthmus of the thyroid gland (Fig. 424). The skin and superficial and deep fascia are incised, and the anterior jugular veins which are encountered in the upper part of the incision, together with any communicating branches of the superior thyroid veins, are caught in forceps and ligated. The sternohyoid and sternothyroid muscles are thus exposed, and should be separated along their

inner borders and retracted to each side. As these muscles are pulled apart, the isthmus of the thyroid gland and the deep cervical fascia covering the trachea appear. This fascia is then divided from the lower border of the cricoid cartilage by a transverse incision curved downward at the extremities. The fascia is then stripped from the trachea and retracted downward, and with it the isthmus of the thyroid gland, thus exposing the rings of the trachea. If the thyroid isthmus is very large, two ligatures may be placed about it, on each side of the median line, to control the hemorrhage, and the isthmus with the deep fascia is incised vertically and retracted to each side. A tenacu-

FIG. 424.—Exposing the trachea in high tracheotomy.

lum is then inserted beneath the cricoid cartilage, and is held by an assistant so as to steady the trachea. If without a tube, it is well to apply retraction sutures on either side of the trachea before opening the latter. For this purpose a full curved needle, threaded with fairly strong silk, is passed on each side through the membrane below the ring to be cut, emerging through the membrane above. A sharp narrow bistoury, with its cutting edge up, is inserted through the membrane below the second ring of the trachea, and the latter is incised in the median line as far up as the cricoid cartilage, care being taken to include the mucous membrane of the trachea in this incision (Fig. 425). The edges of the tracheal opening are separated with tracheal forceps, or the wound is held open by the retraction sutures, if they were previously inserted, and the tracheotomy tube, with its cannula, is

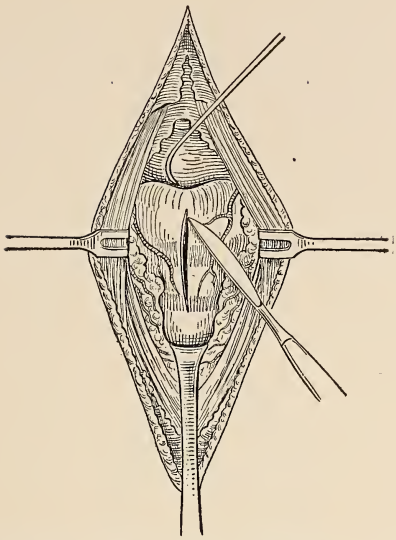


FIG. 425.—Opening the trachea in high tracheotomy. (After Bickham.)

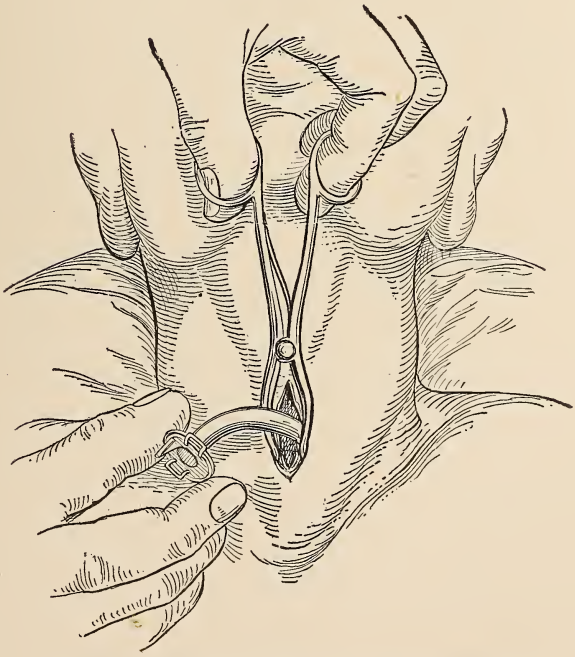


FIG. 426.—Method of inserting the tracheotomy tube.

carefully passed through the open wound into the trachea (Fig. 426). If there is no great urgency, all bleeding should be arrested before the trachea is opened, but where haste is important this may be omitted until the tube is introduced.

When the tube has been properly placed, a pad of gauze is interposed between the skin and the flange of the tube, and the latter is securely held in place by tapes passing from each side of the flange around the neck (Fig. 427).

In cases of diphtheria, as soon as the trachea is opened a large amount of mucus and membrane is usually expelled, and it is of advan-

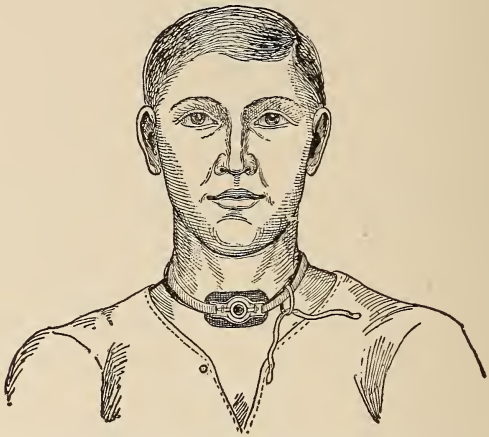


FIG. 427.—Showing the tracheotomy tube in place. (Stoney.)

tage in such cases not to insert the tube at once, but to hold the tracheal wound open and allow the membrane to be expelled. What is not expelled may then be removed, if loose, by forceps. The danger of infection from the patient's coughing bits of membrane from the tracheal opening into the face of the operator should be guarded against by holding a piece of wet gauze over the wound.

3. *Low Tracheotomy.*—The trachea is steadied with the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, and a vertical incision is carried from the thyroid cartilage to within 1/2 inch (1 cm.) of the sternal notch. The skin and superficial and deep fascia, are incised, and the inferior thyroid veins, or other vessels that may be in the way, are ligated and divided. The sternohyoid and sternothyroid muscles are separated in the median line and are retracted to each side. The deep cervical fascia is divided vertically downward from the lower border of the isthmus of the thyroid gland, and is retracted laterally, notching it

transversely on each side if necessary to obtain more space. Care must be taken in deepening the incision at the lower angle of the wound not to injure the innominate vein which may bulge up above the sternal notch. The isthmus of the thyroid gland is pulled well up out of the way by means of a retractor, and while the trachea is steadied, an incision is carried upward through two or more of the lowermost rings by means of a narrow bistoury. The edges of the tracheal wound are then retracted, and the tube is inserted and secured in place as previously described.

Difficulties of Tracheotomy.—In cases where the patient is fat, or the neck short and swollen so that it is difficult to identify the landmarks, the operator may miss the trachea entirely through failure to make the incision exactly in the median line or from pulling the trachea aside with the retractors. Again, he may fail to place the tube within the trachea, through not carrying the incision through the mucous membrane. In some cases the patient may cease breathing with the first rush of air on opening the trachea. This is usually only temporary, and natural breathing soon recommences; if it should not, simple pressure on the sternum suffices to start it up. If the cessation of respiration occurs in the early stage of the operation, the trachea should be immediately opened and artificial respiration performed (see page 58). Sometimes free respiration may be impeded by the end of the tube coming in contact with the wall of the trachea. Any difficulty in introducing the cannula into the trachea may be avoided by making a sufficiently large opening and by steadying the trachea with hooks or retraction sutures.

After-care.—The opening of the tube should be covered with a piece of gauze moistened with normal salt solution, and the patient kept in a room at a temperature of about 65° to 70°. If the operation is performed for inflammatory conditions, the atmosphere should be kept moist by the steam from a croup kettle directed so as to play over the tracheal opening (see page 380). At first, the inner tube should be removed every two or three hours and be cleansed; later, less frequent attention will be required. The outer tube should be removed and cleansed as often as necessary, this being done by the surgeon himself. Its reintroduction will be greatly facilitated by the use of a guide. Any membrane or mucus that may collect at the mouth of the tube should be promptly removed. Secretions blocking the tube may be removed by means of a small catheter and a suction syringe. Membrane may be removed from the interior of the tube with alligator forceps (Fig. 428) introduced through the cannula. If this is not

possible, the tracheotomy tube should be withdrawn and the obstruction removed.

Removal of the Tube.—In cases of diphtheria the tube may be permanently removed as soon as there is free respiration through the larynx with the tracheal wound closed. This is usually possible in from five days to one week. When tracheotomy is employed for the removal of foreign bodies, etc., the tube should be worn for twenty-four hours at least. This allows time for the oozing to cease and averts the danger of blood entering the trachea and the escape of air into the subcutaneous tissues.

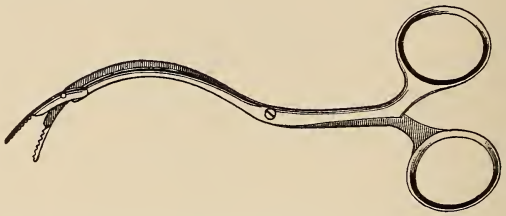


FIG. 428.—Intracannular alligator forceps. (Fowler.)

Complications.—Broncho-pneumonia is a common complication even when not due to an extension of the diphtheritic process. Infection of the wound may follow in diphtheria cases and may spread into the loose connective tissue of the neck, producing a cellulitis; or the infection may work down and cause septic pneumonia. An improperly fitting tube frequently causes ulceration of the trachea from pressure. This complication should be immediately remedied by the substitution of a new tube. Emphysema may occur if the tube is removed too soon; it has also been produced from injury to the posterior or lateral walls of the trachea. Hemorrhage from congested veins may at times be severe; in the majority of cases, however, the bleeding, which may be profuse before the trachea is opened, stops spontaneously as soon as respiration is re-established.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE ESOPHAGUS.

Anatomic Considerations.

The esophagus extends from the lower border of the cricoid cartilage to about the level of the ensiform cartilage or, in other words, from the level of the disk between the fifth and sixth cervical vertebræ to the tenth dorsal vertebra. Its entire length is about 10 inches (25 cm.), while the distance from the upper incisor teeth to the cardiac end measures about 16 inches (40 cm.). Antero-posteriorly the esophagus presents a slight curve with the concavity forward, as it follows the direction of the spinal column. Laterally, it has the following curves: from its starting point it turns slightly to the left, projecting as much as 1/2 inch (1 cm.) to the left of the trachea; it then descends in front of the spine, at first behind the arch of the aorta and then lying to the right of the aorta, finally curving in front of, and a little to the left of, the aorta to pass through the diaphragm (Fig. 429). In its course, the esophagus has in front of its upper portion the trachea; while below it is crossed by the left bronchus and the arch of the aorta. The pericardium and the left vagus nerve also lie in front. Posteriorly, it rests upon the spinal column and the thoracic duct; about 3 inches (7 cm.) from the diaphragm it crosses the aorta. On either side it is in relation with the pleura.

The esophagus measures about 3/4 inch (19 mm.) in diameter, but a number of constrictions in its caliber have been described, the most marked being as follows: (1) at its commencement, 6 inches (15 cm.) from the incisor teeth; (2) at a point 10 inches (25 cm.) from the incisor teeth, where it is crossed by the left bronchus; and (3) at a point 16 inches (40 cm.) from the incisor teeth, where it passes through the diaphragm (Fig. 430). At these points the caliber of the tube measures about 1/2 inch (1 cm.). The measurements, curves, and constrictions of the esophagus are important to remember in the passage of instruments and with reference to the lodgment of foreign bodies.

Diagnostic Methods.

The methods available for examination of the esophagus include: (1) auscultation, (2) percussion, (3) external palpation, (4) instrumental examination, (5) inspection through the esophagoscope, and (5) the use of the X-rays. The first three of these methods are of very limited

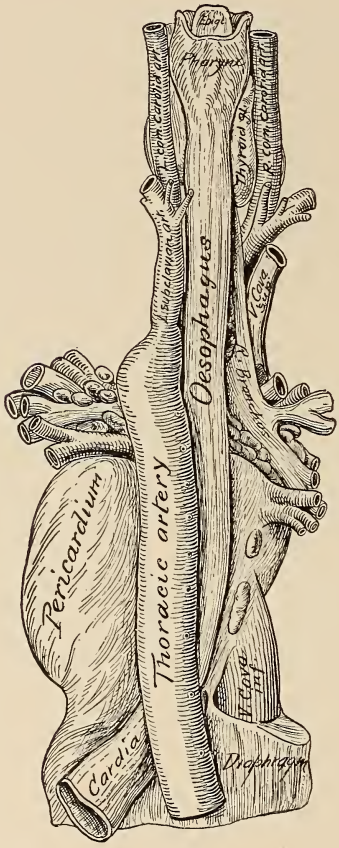


Fig. 429.

Fig. 430.

Fig. 429.—The course and relations of the esophagus viewed from behind.

Fig. 430.—The normal narrowings of the esophagus. (Eisendrath.) 1, At its junction with the pharynx; 2, opposite the bifurcation of the bronchi; 3, at the diaphragm.

clinical value, while the use of the esophagoscope is of doubtful value except in the hands of an expert, so that in the majority of cases we have to rely upon the use of bougies and sounds or the X-rays.

As in examination of other regions, a careful history of the case should precede any local examination.

AUSCULTATION.

Ausculation is performed by listening with a stethoscope over the course of the esophagus while the patient swallows liquids. The usual points for auscultation are upon the left side of the spine opposite the ninth or tenth dorsal vertebra, or just to the left of the ensiform. Normally, during the passage of liquids down the tube two sounds are heard: one directly after the patient swallows and the other six or seven seconds later, as the food is forced into the stomach through the cardia. If stenosis exists at the cardia or a stricture be present at some point higher up, this second sound will be absent or delayed; in paralysis of the esophagus it will likewise be absent. At times it may also be possible to recognize by auscultation the stoppage of the fluid when it reaches the point of stricture.

PERCUSSION.

Percussion may reveal the presence of large tumors, dilatations, or diverticula. In the latter condition, dulness may be present only after eating and be absent when the sac is empty. A tympanitic note will be obtained when the diverticulum sac contains gas.

PALPATION.

External palpation is extremely limited in usefulness, as it is only applicable to the cervical portion of the esophagus. By means of palpation one may be able to discover hard foreign bodies, tumors, enlarged glands, enlargements of the thyroid, as well as any pressure tenderness along the esophagus. Diverticula full of food may be thus distinguished and mapped out, and not infrequently it is possible to empty the diverticulum sac of its contents by pressure.

By internal palpation with the index-finger, foreign bodies lodged in the entrance of the esophagus and strictures, new growths, etc., at the same location may be recognized.

EXAMINATION BY SOUNDS AND BOUGIES.

The sound and bougie are employed for diagnostic as well as therapeutic purposes. By their use valuable information may be obtained as to the location of foreign bodies, strictures, diverticula, etc.; furthermore, the degree of a stenosis may be accurately determined. The passage of esophageal instruments is not difficult. Gentleness only should be employed in manipulation, however, since, if due care is not

exercised in this direction, false passages may be readily made through the esophagus into the mediastinum; especially is such an accident possible if the coats of the esophagus are already weakened by disease.

Before any attempt is made to pass instruments, a thorough physical examination—including the vascular system—should be made. In the presence of aortic aneurysm, recent hemorrhage from the esopha-

Fig. 431.—Cylindrical esophageal sound.

gus or stomach, acute inflammation of the esophagus, and after recent ulceration, the use of esophageal instruments is contraindicated. In cases of advanced pulmonary or cardiac disease and cirrhosis of the liver, instruments, if used, should be employed with great caution.

Instruments.—For ordinary examination, graduated esophageal bougies and bougies à boule are employed. These instruments vary

Fig. 432.—Conical esophageal sound.

in length from 24 to 32 inches (60 to 80 cm.). The best bougies are hollow and are made of a gum-elastic material, so that when warmed they become flexible and capable of being bent to any desired shape. They may be obtained cylindrical (Fig. 431) or conical (Fig. 432) in form. In their stead, however, a thick rubber stomach-tube is often utilized.

Fig. 433.—Olivary bougies à boule for the esophagus.

The bougie à boule is an essential instrument if the length of a stricture is to be estimated. It consists of a flexible whalebone shaft, to the end of which metal or ivory olive-shaped tips of different sizes may be screwed (Fig. 433). The shaft should be marked off in an inch or centimetric scale.

In cases of very tight stricture filiform bougies of whalebone or

woven material may be employed to determine whether the stricture is at all permeable. They may be introduced into the stricture through a hollow bougie which is first passed to the face of the stricture, or they may be inserted through an esophagoscope.

Asepsis.—Rubber bougies and tubes may be sterilized by boiling. The gum-elastic instruments, unless of the very best material, are ruined by boiling or by the use of strong antiseptics. They may be rendered sufficiently aseptic by immersion in a saturated solution of boracic acid, after first thoroughly washing with soap and water. The hands of the operator should also be clean.

Position.—The patient is seated in a chair with the head thrown back against the back of the chair, and with the chin raised sufficiently to make the passage between the mouth and the esophagus as straight a line as is possible. The surgeon stands in front of the patient, while, if desired, an assistant may steady the head from behind. In the

FIG. 434.—Shows the first step in introducing an esophageal bougie.

case of a child, it will be necessary to confine its arms, either having them held by a nurse or by including them in a sheet wrapped about the child's body.

Anesthesia.—In an adult general anesthesia is only necessary in exceptional cases, but the pharynx and larynx, if very irritable or sensitive, may be brushed over with a 5 or 10 per cent. solution of cocain.

Technic. The patient is seated in the proper position with a towel about the neck for protection, and is given a basin to catch vomitus or saliva. A soft, flexible sound is passed as follows: the bougie, lubri-

cated with glycerin and held in the operator's right hand as one would a pen, is passed into the patient's open mouth back to the pharynx. The patient is then requested to swallow and the instrument is thus advanced, partly by the act of swallowing and partly by the operator, until an obstruction is reached or the sound enters the stomach (Fig. 434).

Sometimes when a rather inflexible bougie is employed or when the tongue is thick or the pharynx is swollen, some difficulty may be

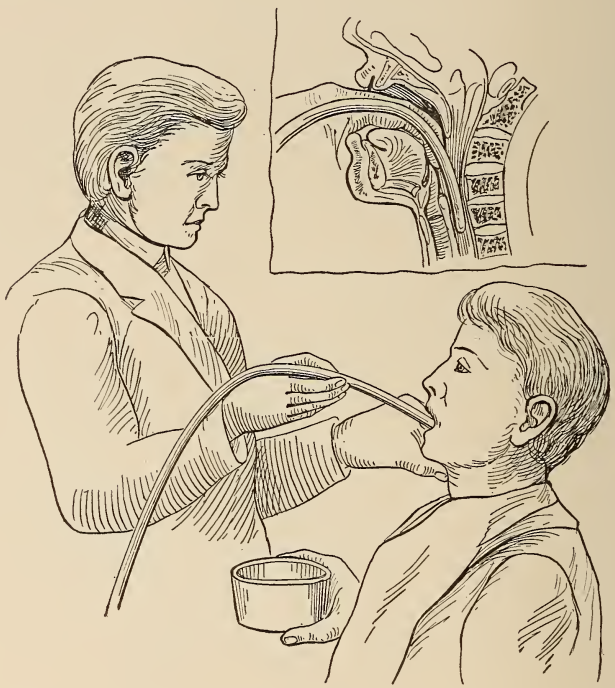


FIG. 435.—Introduction of an esophageal bougie with the finger holding the tongue and epiglottis forward.

encountered in entering the esophageal opening. Under such conditions the operator passes the index-finger of his left hand into the patient's widely opened mouth to a point well back of the tongue and draws the latter forward, and with it the larynx, so that the esophagus may be more easily entered (Fig. 435). The bougie is then passed on the finger as a guide straight back in the median line to the pharynx, and, hugging the posterior wall of the pharynx, it is pushed steadily, but gently, backward and downward into the esophagus, and thence into the stomach, unless some obstruction be encountered.

The patient should be instructed to breathe deeply during the passage of the bougie, even if gagging is produced, and he should be cautioned not to bite the examiner's finger or the tube. There will usually be gagging and some attempts to vomit as the tube is inserted, but, unless very distressing, they may be disregarded. The patient's head, however, should be bent forward over a basin as soon as the tube is well within the esophagus to receive any vomitus, mucus, or saliva (Fig. 436).

If dyspnea and cough are induced, the instrument has probably entered the larynx. To settle this point, the patient should be told to

Fig. 436.—Shows the second step in introducing an esophageal bougie.

phonate "ee"; if he can do so, one may be sure the bougie is not in the larynx. If the passage of the tube becomes impeded at any point, the tube should be slightly withdrawn and then again pushed gently onward, when, unless a stenosis exists, it will advance without difficulty. The points of normal constriction at which a bougie may be arrested without any diseased condition being present should, however, be kept in mind. They are: (1) 6 inches (15 cm.) from the upper incisor teeth; (2) 10 inches (25 cm.) from the incisors; and (3) 16 inches (40 cm.) from the incisors (see Fig. 430). If a large tube can be passed into the stomach, the existence of a stenosis may be ruled out, while if the tube passes very easily without any sense of resistance, atony or paralysis of the canal is presumable.

Any evidences of pain, however, produced by the bougie in its descent should be carefully noted, as pointing to possible inflammation, ulceration, or malignancy. When the bougie meets a real obstruction

the cause should, if possible, be learned; that is, whether due to spasm, an organic stricture, a diverticulum, a new growth, or a foreign body. No force should be employed in attempting to overcome the obstruction, but the bougie should simply be held firmly in place for several minutes or be slightly withdrawn when, if a spasm were the cause, it can be advanced as relaxation takes place. A spasmodic stricture will always disappear if the patient is placed under the influence of a general anesthetic. If the obstruction does not yield, the

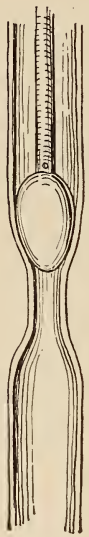


Fig. 437.

Fig. 438.

Fig. 437.—Method of estimating the length of an esophageal stricture. The bougie à boule at the face of the stricture.

Fig. 438.—Method of estimating the length of an esophageal stricture. The bougie à boule is withdrawn until its base is arrested at the distal end of the stricture.

bougie is removed and a smaller one is inserted; and, if necessary, smaller sizes are successively introduced until one is selected that will pass completely through the stenosed area into the stomach. In this way the degree of stenosis is ascertained. It is quite important in making this examination to insert the bougie into the stomach, as, otherwise, a second stricture below the first may be overlooked.

To determine the length of a stricture, a large olive-tipped sound is inserted until it reaches the face of the stricture (Fig. 437), and the distance of the stenosis from the upper incisor teeth is estimated from the markings on the shaft of the instrument. The bougie is then withdrawn and a size that will just pass is inserted well through the

stricture. Upon withdrawing the instrument, the base of the bulb catches in the lower rim of the constriction (Fig. 438), and the distance of this point from the mouth is also estimated. By subtracting the first of these measurements from the second, the length of the contracture is readily determined.

It is often possible for a practised hand to determine the consistency of an obstruction from the sensation imparted by contact with the tip of the instrument. By means of a metal-tipped bougie à boule the consistency of hard foreign bodies, such as teeth, coins, bone, etc., may be readily recognized, and at times a distinct sound may be distinguished when the two come in contact.

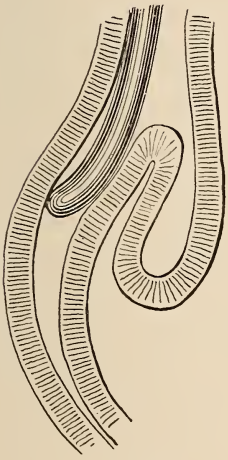


Fig. 439.

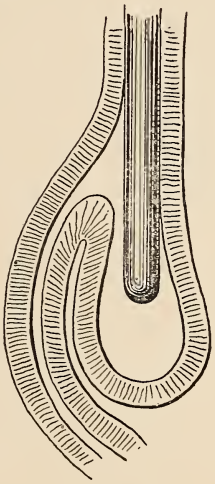


Fig. 440.

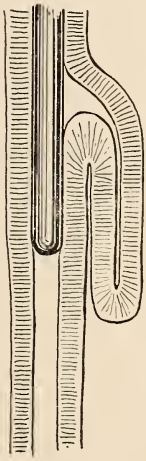


Fig. 441.

Fig. 439.—Shows a sound passing the opening of a diverticulum. (After Gumprecht.)

Fig. 440.—Shows the ease with which a sound will enter a diverticulum when the latter is full. (After Gumprecht.)

Fig. 441.—Shows the ease with which a sound follows the esophagus when the diverticulum is empty. (After Gumprecht.)

If the bougie has entered a diverticulum, it will be possible to move its end freely in different directions, and, if the diverticulum be located high up, the end of the bougie may often be felt in the neck. Again, by withdrawing the instrument somewhat so as to disengage the tip, and by changing its direction (Fig. 439), it can frequently be passed by the diverticulum into the stomach. A bougie will be more apt to enter a diverticulum if the sac be full (Fig. 440) and pass to the stomach when the sac is empty (Fig. 441). This intermittent obstruction to the passage of a bougie is characteristic of a diverticulum, and is a point in the differential diagnosis from stricture.

The bougie should always be examined after its withdrawal for the presence of blood or pus which may be found adhering to its surface or tip. With the hollow bougie provided with a lateral opening near its tip, fragments of tissue sufficiently large for examination may be brought away by the instrument, which when placed under the microscope may confirm a diagnosis of possible malignancy.

ESOPHAGOSCOPY.

Esophagoscopy, a method devised by Mikulicz, consists in direct inspection of the interior of the esophagus by the aid of a long endoscopic tube illuminated by electricity. By the use of the esophagoscope in the hands of an expert, much valuable information may be obtained; foreign bodies may be located and removed; ulcers, new growths, strictures, the openings of diverticula, etc., may be directly inspected; and fragments of tissue may be removed for examination. Still, the discomfort of such an examination for the patient and the experience and skill required in the use of the instrument on the part of the examiner will not allow it to supplant the ordinary methods of examination as a routine.

In the passage of the esophagoscope the same care should be observed as in the passage of any esophageal instruments. The contraindications to its use are practically the same as those mentioned for the sound or bougie, viz., aortic aneurysm, recent hemorrhage from the esophagus, advanced pulmonary or cardiac disease, etc.

Instruments.—Von Mikulicz's instruments (Fig. 442) are cylindrical tubes about 2/5 to 1/2 inch (10 to 13 mm.) in diameter, bevelled at the end and supplied with an obturator to aid in their introduction. On the outside, the tubes are marked off in a centimetric scale. They are made in different lengths, according to the depth to which it is wished to pass the instrument. The illumination is supplied by a panelectroscope at the proximal end of the instrument.

Other tubes, such as Jackson's (Fig. 443) or Einhorn's, for instance, are provided with illumination at the distal end of the instrument. These will be found easier to manage, as with the former it is difficult to direct the light properly on account of the length of the tube. To examine the entire length of the esophagus, for adults Jackson uses a tube about 22 inches (53 cm.) long and 2/5 inch (10 mm.) thick, and for children, a tube 18 inches (45 cm.) long and 7/25 inch (7 mm.) thick. In addition to the esophagoscope, a Sajous applicator, swabs on holders, various shaped forceps for removing foreign bodies or sections of tissue for examination, etc., are required.

Asepsis.—The tubes and accessory instruments may be sterilized by boiling and the lights by immersion in alcohol.

Preparation of Patient.—The patient's stomach should be empty,

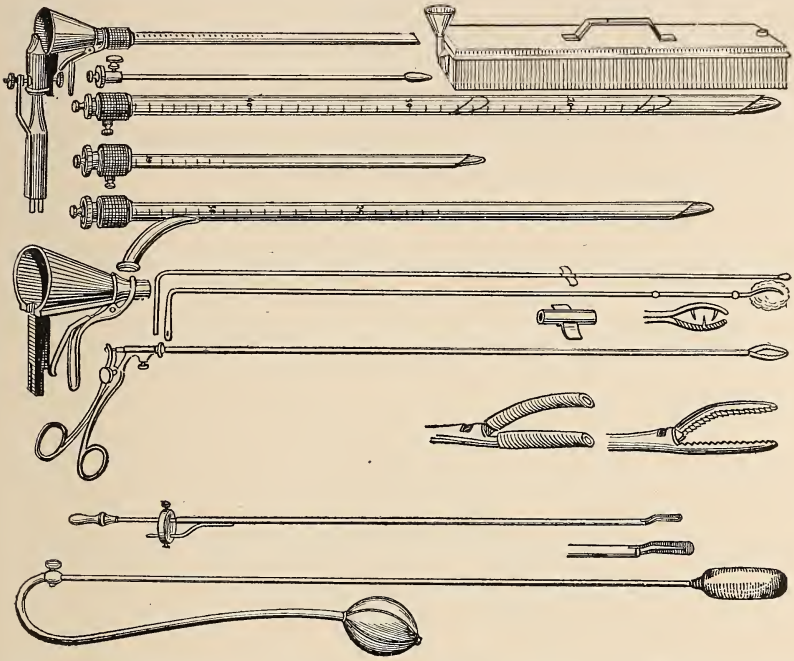


FIG. 442.—Von Mikulicz set of instruments for esophagoscopy. (Gottstein in Keen's Surgery.)

to avoid regurgitation of its contents. Where there is a marked dilatation of the esophagus, a preliminary lavage (see page 416) may be necessary. The clothing should be loosened from about the patient's

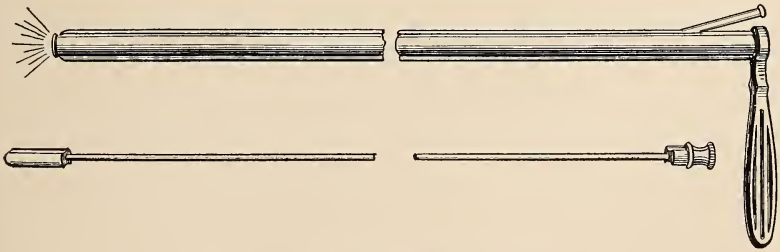


FIG. 443.—Jackson's esophagoscope.

neck and chest and any plates or artificial teeth should be removed from the mouth.

Position of Patient.—Some operators perform esophagoscopy

with the patient sitting up; others, with the patient on a table in a right lateral position, with the head supported and controlled by an assistant. This latter posture, or that known as Rose's posture, viz., the patient recumbent with the head hanging over the end of a table, supported by an assistant, who raises, lowers, or turns the head at will (Fig. 444), is preferable.

Anesthesia.—General anesthesia may be required in children. For adults, painting the pharynx, larynx, and entrance of the esopha-

Fig. 444.—The position of the patient and assistant for esophagoscopy. (After Jackson.)

gus with a 10 per cent. solution of cocain by means of a cotton swab held in a Sajous applicator some minutes before the introduction of the tube will suffice. This may be very effectually done through a short split-tube spatula, such as is used in direct laryngoscopy (see page 364).

Technic.—The seat of trouble should have been previously determined by means of a bougie, and if the operator possesses tubes of different lengths this will enable him to select one of the proper length. The tube is lubricated with glycerin, the patient's mouth is well opened, and, with the index-finger of the left hand, the base of the tongue is drawn forward (Fig. 446). The operator then introduces the tube, with the obturator inserted in place, backward to the posterior part of

the pharynx and then downward, the assistant at the same time extending the patient's head so as to bring the mouth and esophagus nearly

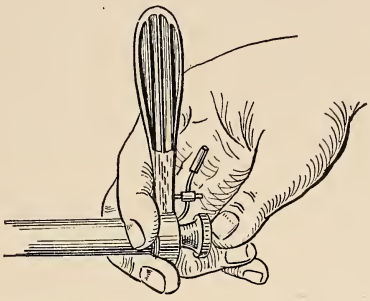


FIG. 445.—Shows the method of holding the esophagoscope. (After Jackson.)

in the same straight line. The patient is directed to aid the passage of the tube by swallowing. As soon as the esophagus has been well

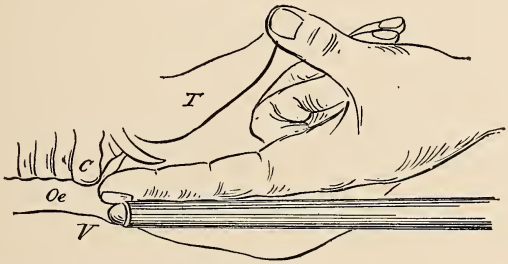


FIG. 446.—First step in esophagoscopy, the left index-finger guiding the instrument into the esophagus. (After Jackson.)

entered, the obturator is removed, the illumination is turned on, and the tube is gently pushed on into the canal by direct sight, the surgeon

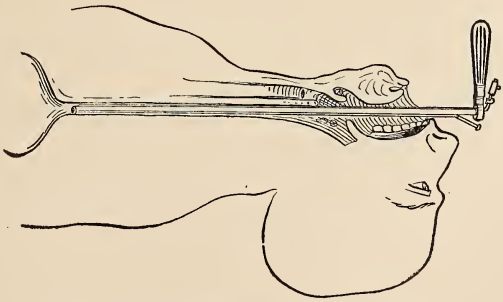


FIG. 447.—Shows the esophagoscope in place.

standing or being seated at the head of the table (Fig. 447). Under direct inspection the direction of the esophagus can be distinguished

and the tube advanced accordingly, care being taken to avoid compression of the trachea by a faulty direction of the end of the tube. In the cervical portion, the walls of the esophagus lie in apposition, the canal being represented by a slit extending from side to side. Below the level of the sternum the canal is open. The appearance of the esophageal mucous membrane differs from that of the trachea in that it has not the deep red tint of the latter, but appears pale red or slightly pink. Any mucus or regurgitated matter from the stomach that blocks the end of the tube may be removed by means of swabs upon long applicators or by the aspirating apparatus with which some of the tubes are supplied. In this manner the whole interior of the canal down to the cardia may be minutely inspected, and diseased areas treated by local applications if desired. Following the operation, if there is pain or difficulty in swallowing, cracked ice in small quantities may be administered.

SKIAGRAPHY.

The X-rays are useful in locating bones, coins, and other impervious foreign bodies. By having the patient first swallow bismuth or similar metallic substances which are capable of casting a shadow in the X-ray, a diverticulum or dilated area may be mapped out. For this purpose capsules of bismuth subnitrate 5 to 30 grains (0.32 to 1.95 gm.) or a mixture of bismuth and potato soup are employed. The bismuth forms a coating in the gullet and the outline of the tube is thus represented in the skiagraph by a dark shadow.

Therapeutic Measures.

LAVAGE OF THE ESOPHAGUS.

Lavage of the esophagus is employed chiefly for the purpose of removing collections of mucus and stagnated or decomposing food particles which have become arrested in a diverticulum sac or in a dilated area above a stenosis. In cancer of the esophagus it is frequently employed to remove foul and decomposed products of the ulceration, and gives much relief to the patient.

Apparatus.—An ordinary stomach-tube, about a No. 20 American in size and 30 inches (75 cm.) long, provided with two lateral windows near the tip, and fitted with a small glass funnel at its proximal end, forms the necessary apparatus (Fig. 448). More elaborate apparatus has been devised for esophageal lavage, such as, for example, Boas'

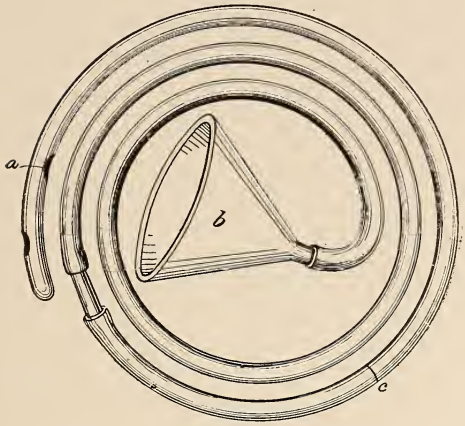


FIG. 448.—Apparatus for esophageal lavage.
a, Fenestra in the tip of the tube; *b*, glass funnel; *c*, mark to indicate the distance from the teeth to the stomach.

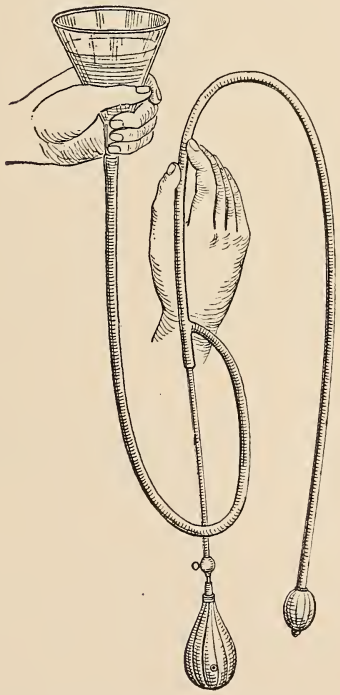


FIG. 449.—Boas' apparatus for esophageal lavage. (After Gumprecht.)

tube (Fig. 449), which is provided with an inflatable rubber balloon for closing the lower end of the esophagus, thus preventing solution passing the cardia; but the simple apparatus described above will answer in the majority of cases.

Asepsis.—The tube and funnel should be sterilized by boiling before use.

Solution.—For simple lavage sterile water is sufficient. Other solutions with an antiseptic or astringent action are also sometimes employed.

Temperature.—The solution should be introduced warm, *i.e.*, at a temperature of about 100° F.

Frequency.—In some cases the lavage will be required as frequently as every day; in other cases once every other day is sufficient. It should preferably be performed before the first meal of the day.

Position of the Patient.—The patient should sit in a chair, or else should sit up in bed with the head thrown back and the chin elevated. The operator stands in front.

Technic.—The patient is protected by a sheet or a towel fastened about his neck, and is given a basin to hold for the purpose of receiving any vomitus that may be expelled during the passage of the tube. He then opens his mouth widely, and the operator slowly inserts the stomach-tube, lubricated with glycerin, down to the seat of the dilatation, being careful at first to keep the tip of the instrument close to the posterior wall of the pharynx to prevent its entering the larynx. The funnel end is then raised and through it from 2 to 2 1/2 ounces (60 to 75 c.c.) of warm water are poured into the esophagus. The funnel end is then lowered and the contents are drained off. By alternately pouring in solution and draining it off, the esophagus may be thoroughly cleansed and all particles of food or mucus removed.

THE DILATATION OF ESOPHAGEAL STRICTURES BY BOUGIES.

The treatment of an esophageal stricture comprises dilatation by means of bougies, internal esophagotomy, external esophagotomy, and, when the stricture is impassable, gastrostomy. Gradual dilatation by the bougies is most frequently employed and, generally speaking, is the best form of treatment, as by this means the majority of strictures may be in time dilated. The tendency, however, is for the stricture to reform after dilatation unless a bougie be passed at intervals

during the remainder of the patient's life. When the stricture involves the greater part of the canal, dilatation is frequently unsuccessful. Dilatation is contraindicated in very recent burns of the esophagus. Moderate and carefully performed dilatation, however, is not contraindicated by carcinoma.

Strictures may be located in any part of the esophagus, but the majority are situated near the points of normal constriction of the

FIG. 450.—The most frequent seats of stricture of the esophagus. (Eisendrath). *A*, Aorta, *D*, Diaphragm. 1, Stenosis from carcinoma of lower end of the pharynx and beginning of the esophagus; 2, stenosis from pressure of tumors of the neck; 3, stenosis due to aneurysm the arch of the aorta; 4, stenosis as the result of caustic or lye burns; 5, stenosis as result of carcinoma of lower end of the esophagus and cardiac end of stomach.

canal (Fig. 450). They are usually single, but may be multiple, and they also vary in form and shape, being valve-like, annular, semicircular, or tortuous. The portion of the canal immediately above a tight stricture dilates from the accumulation of food; especially is this the case if the stricture is low in the canal, and as a result inflammation or suppuration may develop. In such cases there is great

danger of perforating the walls of the esophagus unless exceeding gentleness in manipulation is observed.

The danger of passing a bougie through an aneurysmal sac should also be kept in mind, and to avoid such an accident a careful physical examination should be made in every case before inserting any esophageal instrument. By such examination the discovery of other growths

Fig. 451.—Cylindrical esophageal bougie.

within the neck or mediastinum producing compression is often possible. It is next necessary to determine by means of a bougie the location, the degree, the approximate length, and, if possible, the character of the stricture before any attempts at dilatation are made.

Instruments.—Flexible bougies of woven material impregnated with elastic gum, which become soft when placed in warm water and

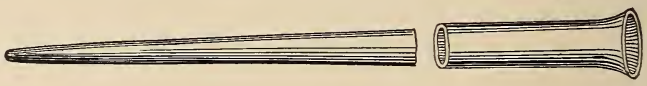


Fig. 452.—Conical esophageal bougie.

rigid when placed in cold water, are generally employed. The bougies vary in size from 1/12 to 3/5 inch (2 to 14 mm.). In a normal esophagus, a bougie 1/2 to 3/5 inch (13 to 14 mm.) in diameter will pass the narrow portions without difficulty.

For strictures of fair size, say the size of a lead pencil, cylindrical

Fig. 453.—Bulbous esophageal bougie.

bougies (Fig. 451) may be employed; for smaller strictures the conical or bulbous instruments (Fig. 453) are used.

In the dilatation of very tight strictures catgut strings, flexible whalebone, or linen filiforms similar to the urethral filiforms are sometimes employed. They are inserted by the aid of the esophagoscope or through a special hollow sound.

Other more complicated instruments are sometimes used, such as Schreiber's and Billroth's sounds. The former (Fig. 454) consists of a hollow bougie with a rubber bag on the dilating end, which is capable of being distended with fluid forced in through the distal end of the instrument. Billroth's sound consists of a cloth sound filled with mercury. These instruments, however, possess no advantages over the ordinary flexible bougie.

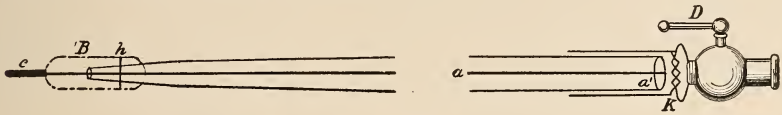


FIG. 454.—Schreiber's esophageal sound. (Gottstein in Keen's Surgery.)

Asepsis.—The gum-elastic bougies may be sterilized in formalin vapor or by immersion in a saturated boracic acid solution.

Preparation of Patient.—In cases of marked dilatation of the canal above the stenosis full of stagnant food and mucus, preliminary esophageal lavage (page 416) is indicated.

Rapidity of Dilatation.—The stretching should be done gradually. Rapid dilatation or divulsion is dangerous and inadvisable.

Frequency.—As a rule, the bougies may be inserted every second or third day. If the bougie be employed too frequently, irritation at the seat of stricture is produced and the condition is made worse instead of improved. After full dilatation has been reached the intervals between treatments may be stretched to a week, and then gradually to a month. The patient should not be permitted to go longer than this, however, without the passage of a bougie, as contraction is extremely liable to develop. At any signs of recurrence of the trouble, more frequent treatments are necessary.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be seated in a chair with the head thrown well back and with the chin raised.

Anesthesia.—Though not absolutely necessary, preliminary cocainization of the pharynx and larynx with a 10 per cent. solution of cocain renders the operation easier.

Technic.—A bougie of a size that will enter the stricture is chosen. This is determined from the examination of the stricture previously made. The bougie is softened in warm water and bent to a gentle curve near its tip, and is well lubricated with glycerin. The operator, standing in front of the patient, inserts the bougie into the patient's mouth to the posterior wall of the pharynx, and, keeping it close to this latter structure, it is slowly advanced into the esophagus (see Fig.

434). If difficulty is encountered in entering the esophagus, the tongue may be drawn forward by the left index-finger, as shown in Fig. 435.

When the stricture is reached care must be taken not to use any force in attempting to pass it, as a false passage may be made or the instrument may simply be doubled upon itself. By gently withdrawing and then advancing the instrument, and by moving its tip in different directions, the opening will be entered if the particular instrument is of sufficiently small caliber. When the instrument is once within the stricture the operator is acquainted with the fact by the tight grasp

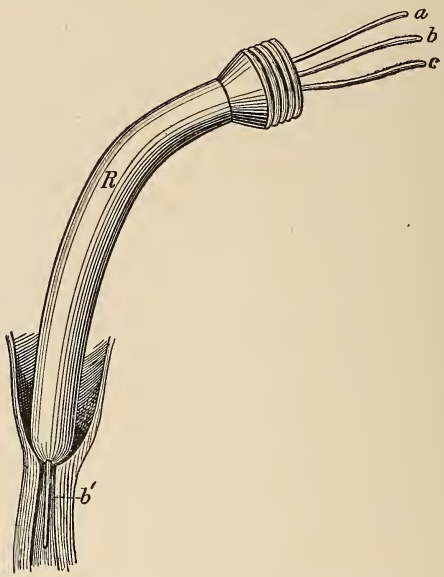


FIG. 455.—Von Hacker's method of introducing thin catgut bougies. (Gottstein in Keen's Surgery.)
a, *b*, *c*, Into the stricture; *b′*, through a wide hollow bougie (*R*).

upon the bougie exerted by the stricture. The bougie should be slowly passed entirely through the constriction, and should be allowed to remain in place from five to ten minutes before it is withdrawn. At the next sitting the same size bougie is again inserted, and, if the stricture seems very tight, this same instrument may be passed on two or more occasions before a larger one is employed. When there is more than one stricture, no attempt should be made to dilate the lower ones until dilatation of the upper is secured.

Very tight strictures may be dilated by means of filiform bougies inserted through an esophagoscope or by von Hacker's method of

inserting catgut strings. In the latter procedure a hollow sound made especially for inserting catgut strands is passed down as far as the face of the stricture, and through this the catgut strands are insinuated into the opening one after another in a manner similar to the method used for tight urethral strictures (Fig. 455). They are left in place fifteen to thirty minutes, and, as the gut swells, the contracture is stretched. As soon as sufficient dilatation for the passage of a small bougie has been thus produced, bougies of a conical shape may be substituted.

INTUBATION OF THE ESOPHAGUS.

This consists in the insertion of a tube into a stenosed esophagus which is left in place continuously for varying periods at a time. It is a method of treatment used in cancer of the esophagus when the patient is unable to swallow food, and sometimes as a means of dilating elastic strictures which are dilatable, but rapidly contract after the withdrawal of a bougie.

Long tubes inserted into the stomach through the mouth or nose or short tubes which can be passed through the stenosed area by the aid of a guide are employed. The use of the short tubes is preferable and is far more agreeable for the patient, as with them it is possible for the patient to swallow saliva and to take food in the natural way, the ability to taste food being also preserved by the patient. They are, however, more difficult to insert than are the long tubes. Another disadvantage of the short tube is that if it becomes blocked it may have to be removed for cleansing. If the obstruction is situated very near the entrance of the esophagus, the use of short tubes is usually impracticable, as the expanded end of the tube presses on the larynx and produces laryngeal irritation and spasm. In such cases long tubes are indicated. Long tubes are also indicated in the later stages of carcinoma of the esophagus, with a fistulous opening between the esophagus and air-passages, when it is necessary to prevent any food from passing through the esophagus in order to avoid danger of lung complications.

Instruments.—When long tubes are indicated, an ordinary hollow cylindrical esophageal tube (see Fig. 431) or a rubber stomach-tube of appropriate size may be employed. For the purpose of feeding the patient, a glass funnel that will fit into the proximal end of the tube will also be required.

Short tubes of gum elastic and hard rubber have been devised by

Symonds, von Leyden, and others. Symonds' tubes (Fig. 456) are about 6 inches (15 cm.) long, and may be obtained in sizes of varying caliber. The lower end of the tube has a terminal or a lateral opening, while the upper extremity ends in a funnel-shaped expansion, which rests upon the superior surface of the stricture or growth and prevents the tube from slipping down the esophagus; to this expanded end silk threads are secured as shown in Fig. 456, for the purpose of extracting

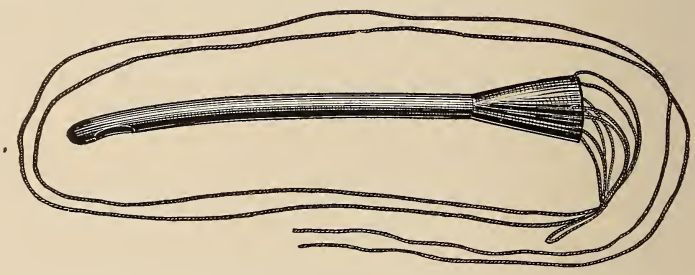


Fig. 456.—Symonds' short tube for intubation of the esophagus.

the tube. A special whalebone guide for inserting the tube is also required (Fig. 457).

Asepsis.—Gum-elastic instruments are sterilized by formalin vapor or by immersion in a saturated solution of boracic acid. Rubber tubes, however, may be boiled. Before reinserting the same tube, it should be thoroughly washed with soap and water and resterilized.

Duration of the Intubation.—For dilating a stricture the tube is left in place twenty-four to forty-eight hours, and, if it has then become

Fig. 457.—Symonds' tube on introducer.

loosened through stretching of the contracture, it is removed and a larger one is inserted and allowed to remain in place for the same length of time. This process is repeated until full dilatation has been obtained.

In cancer of the esophagus the tube is worn continuously except when it is removed once every ten days for cleansing. A long tube, however, may be left in place permanently, as it can be kept clean by syringing down its interior.

Position of Patient.—The patient is placed in the same position as for the passage of any esophageal instrument, viz., sitting upright, the head thrown well back, and the chin elevated.

Anesthesia.—As an aid in the introduction of the tube the pharynx and larynx may be sprayed with a 10 per cent. solution of cocain.

Technic.—1. *Long Tubes.*—The site of the stenosis is previously determined by means of a bougie, and a tube that will comfortably pass is selected. The patient widely opens his mouth and the operator gently inserts the tube in the manner already described for the passage of an esophageal bougie (page 407). The tube is passed into the stomach, and the proximal end, which is brought out of a corner of the mouth, is fitted with a cork and is secured to the ear by a piece of silk. It will be necessary for the patient to remain in a recumbent position with the head to one side to allow saliva which collects to escape, as this is prevented from passing down the canal.

Fig. 458.—Shows long esophageal tube passed through the nose

Instead of passing the tube through the mouth it may be inserted through the nostril (Fig. 458), a method that will be far more agreeable to the patient. The free end, corked as above, is then secured in place by means of adhesive plaster.

2. *Short Tubes.*—A tube of the proper size is selected and placed upon the introducer, being prevented from falling off by the silk threads which are grasped by the operator with the same hand he employs in introducing the tube. The patient's tongue is then drawn well forward and the tube is passed down the esophagus and is inserted through the stricture by means of the introducer, following the same

steps as for the passage of a bougie (Fig. 459). When the tube is in proper position the tension on the threads is relaxed and the introducer is gently disengaged from the tube and removed. The threads are then brought out of a corner of the mouth and are secured to the ear or face with adhesive plaster. If any of the patient's teeth are missing the threads should be made to emerge from the mouth through such a space so as to avoid being cut by the teeth.

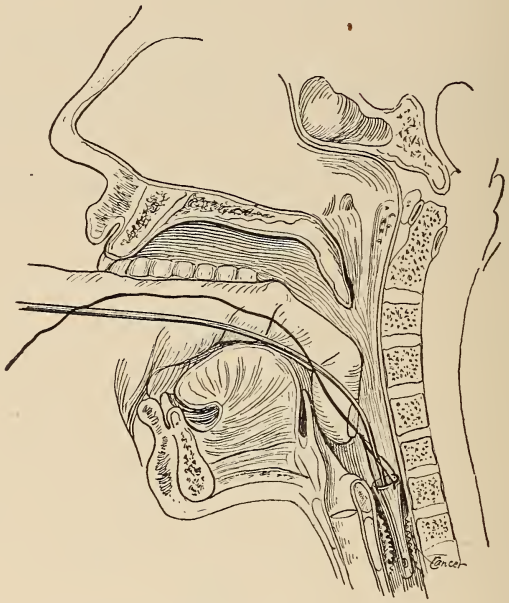


FIG. 459.—Showing the method of introducing Symonds' short tube.

Should the tube become blocked, it may be possible to remove the obstruction by passing a very small bougie down through it; otherwise the tube will have to be removed and cleaned. Withdrawal of the tube is effected by making gentle traction upon the threads secured to its proximal end.

Feeding.—While the tube is in place the patient is kept upon a fluid diet, such as milk, broth, eggs beaten in milk, etc. With the short tubes food may be administered by mouth, but when the long tubes are employed the nourishment is introduced through a funnel inserted in the proximal end of the tube. Between feedings the end of the tube may be closed by means of a cork.

CHAPTER XV.

THE STOMACH.

Anatomic Considerations.

The stomach may be described as a hollow, inverted, pear-shaped organ, the greater part of which lies in the epigastric and left hypochondriac regions, about one-sixth of the organ extending beyond the right of the median line. When empty it lies deep in the abdomen in front of the pancreas, being covered by the liver and diaphragm for about two-thirds of its area and by the abdominal wall over the remaining one-third. The space in which the stomach comes in contact with

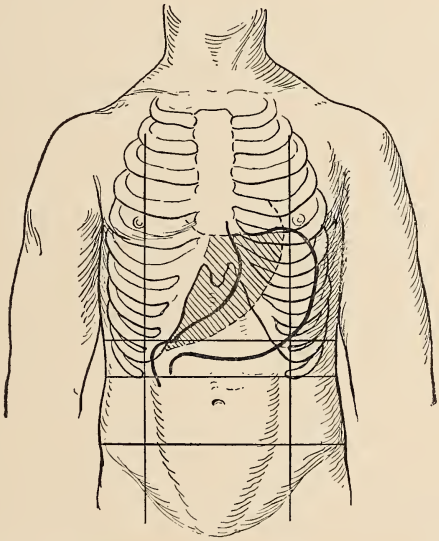


FIG. 460.—The normal position of the stomach.

the anterior abdominal wall is triangular in shape, bounded on the right by the lower border of the liver, on the left by the eighth, ninth, and tenth costal cartilages, and below by the transverse colon.

The upper limit of the stomach, the fundus, reaches the level of the lower border of the fifth rib in the mammary line, being in relation with the diaphragm above and the concave surface of the spleen to the left. The lower limit or greater curvature extends to the level of a

line connecting the lowest portions of the ninth or tenth ribs or to within 2 inches (5 cm.) of the umbilicus. In contraction or dilatation of the organ, however, this normal position of the greater curvature may be modified to a marked degree. The cardiac or superior opening lies about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) to the left of the median line, at the level of the eleventh dorsal vertebra, or anteriorly at the level of the junction of the sternum and seventh costal cartilage. It is situated about 4 1/2 inches (11 cm.) posterior to the anterior abdominal wall. The pyloric opening is situated in front of, but on a lower plane than, the cardiac opening, lying to the right of the median line and covered by the right lobe of the liver. It is on a level with the upper border of the body of the first lumbar vertebra or anteriorly on a level with a point 2 or 3 inches (5 to 7.5 cm.) below the sternoxiphoid joint. The long axis of the undistended stomach lies in more of a vertical than a horizontal plane with the lesser curvature directed principally to the right and the greater curvature to the left. When distended, however, the organ changes its position somewhat; the greater curvature is tilted to the front so that the upper surface looks upward and the lower downward; at the same time the pylorus moves 2 inches (5 cm.) or more to the right.

The capacity of the stomach is subject to wide variations. The average is about 2 1/2 pints (1200 c.c.). When the stomach is empty, the longest diameter measures 7 1/4 to 8 inches (18 to 20 cm.) and the transverse diameter 2 3/4 to 3 1/4 inches (7 to 8 cm.) When the organ is filled, the longest diameter is increased to 10 or 12 inches (25 or 30 cm.) and the widest point of the transverse diameter to 3 1/4 or 4 inches (8 or 10 cm.).

Diagnostic Methods.

In the diagnosis of stomach diseases a history of the previous and the present condition of the patient should be carefully taken and a general physical examination should be made before the examination of the stomach itself is undertaken. In obtaining the patient's history, in addition to the usual questions common to all histories, inquiry should be directed especially to the following points: the general condition of the health, the appetite, any loss of weight, the date and manner of onset of the symptoms, pain, sensation of pressure or distention, nausea, vomiting, vomiting of blood, etc. Of special diagnostic importance is a history of gastric pain, vomiting, or the vomiting of blood.

As to pain, one should ascertain its character, its location, whether

diffuse or circumscribed in area, and especially the time of its onset in relation to the taking of food and the length of time it persists after meals. A simple feeling of pressure or fulness, however, should not be confounded with pain. Patients often confuse the two. It is also important to determine whether the pain is present at all times or only at certain stated periods and whether any special variety of food has an influence. Pain complained of when the stomach is empty is probably due to hyperchlorhydria, in which case it is relieved by eating. On the other hand, the pain of an ulcer or cancer comes on after eating, and the seat of pain is usually localized. In ulcer it is severe, comes on soon after eating, and is often completely relieved by vomiting. Its origin is often located by the patient in the back in the region of the lower dorsal vertebra on the left side. In cancer the pain is not, as a rule, so severe as that of ulcer nor does it come on so soon after eating, and it is not so uniformly relieved by vomiting.

With a history of nausea and vomiting, the examiner should inquire into the relation of these symptoms to the taking of food, the frequency of occurrence, the character and the quantity of vomitus, and whether the patient is relieved by vomiting. This all has an important bearing upon the case. Nausea, as a rule, but not always, precedes vomiting. In certain conditions, especially when of nervous origin, nausea may be present when the stomach is empty. The time of vomiting is also quite important. In gastric ulcer the vomiting usually takes place soon after feeding, that is, within an hour or so; and, as already pointed out, its occurrence usually relieves the pain complained of. In cancer of the stomach, vomiting may not appear until late in the disease and, as a rule, the attacks of vomiting do not come on at such short intervals after feeding as in the case of ulcer. In dilatation, on the other hand, vomiting occurs at comparatively long intervals, and the amount brought up is correspondingly large. Blood in the vomitus is always of diagnostic importance. A profuse hemorrhage from the stomach generally signifies an ulcer, while the constant vomiting of blood-streaked material points more toward cancer; especially is this true if the vomited matter has a foul odor.

It has been possible here to point out the importance and the significance of but a few symptoms, and for further details the reader is referred to works on diagnosis where these will be found fully discussed. The writer simply wishes to emphasize the importance of a careful history and to point out in a general way the lines of questioning.

A general physical examination should never be neglected, even though the patient refers his symptoms to the stomach alone, for

secondary disturbances of the functions of the stomach are present in a great variety of diseases. This examination should include the mouth, the tongue, the chest, the abdomen, an analysis of the urine, an examination of the blood, etc. When all possible information has been obtained from these sources a special examination of the stomach itself should be made for which the following methods are available: (1) inspection; (2) palpation; (3) percussion; (4) auscultation; (5) inflation; (6) examination of the gastric secretion; (7) tests for determining the motor and absorptive power of the stomach; (8) transillumination; (9) gastroscopy; and (10) skiagraphy.

INSPECTION.

Abdominal inspection in thin individuals may at times give valuable information, but in stout persons the method is of very limited value. In favorable cases it may be possible by this means to determine the size and position of the stomach by tracing the shadow which represents the outline of the greater curvature. Inspection is greatly aided by a preliminary inflation of the organ (page 437). When thus distended the stomach becomes separated from the surrounding organs and its contour is more easily made out. At the same time abnormal positions or new growths may be better recognized.

Position of Patient.—The patient is placed upon a firm flat table, with his head directed toward the source of light, so that the rays will fall from the head toward the feet. The light should be so regulated by adjustment of the window shades that it enters on a plane only a little above the patient.

Technic.—The examiner takes his stand near the patient's feet and, by moving from side to side, is enabled to make out the stomach outlines from the shadows cast by the inequalities of the abdominal wall produced by the stomach beneath (Fig. 461). At times tumors of the body of the stomach or of the pylorus may be observed elevating the abdominal walls, and, if the growth be movable, a change in its position may be noted when the stomach is full and when it is empty. If there be obstruction of the pylorus with dilatation and hypertrophy of the walls, peristaltic movements of the stomach may be observed after taking food. These waves may be seen extending toward the pylorus from under the ribs in the left upper quadrant to the right lower quadrant. Peristalsis may be excited by tapping the abdomen or by the application of cold. A dilated stomach may be determined from the great bulging in the epigastrium and from tracing the greater

curvature to a point considerably below the umbilicus, and at times an hour-glass contraction may be recognized (Fig. 462). In gastroptosis the epigastrium will be retracted, and the lesser curvature may be seen

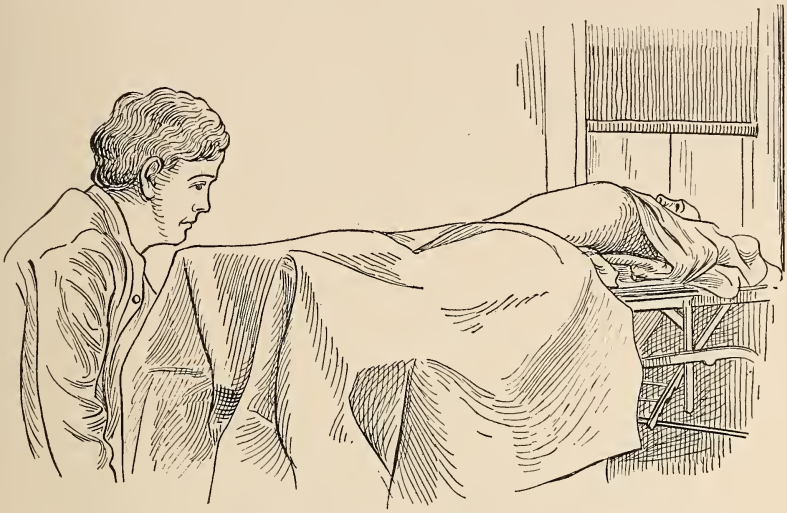


FIG. 461.—Inspection of the stomach.

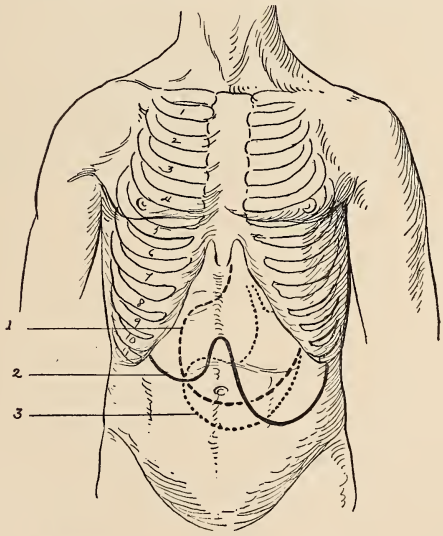


FIG. 462.—Showing the shape of: (1) A dilated stomach, (2) an hour-glass stomach, (3) the stomach in gastroptosis.

represented by a groove extending from the umbilicus to the ribs upon the left and above. Depression of the epigastrium will also be seen in stenosis of the cardia.

PALPATION.

Palpation is by far the most reliable of the methods of physical examination. The stomach should, when possible, be palpated both before and after taking food, as tumors of the posterior wall are often capable of being felt only when the stomach is empty. The large intestine should be emptied by an enema, if necessary, so as to avoid mistaking feces for new growths. The examination should be carried out systematically, and of course it must not be limited to the stomach alone, but all the other abdominal organs should be palpated as well.

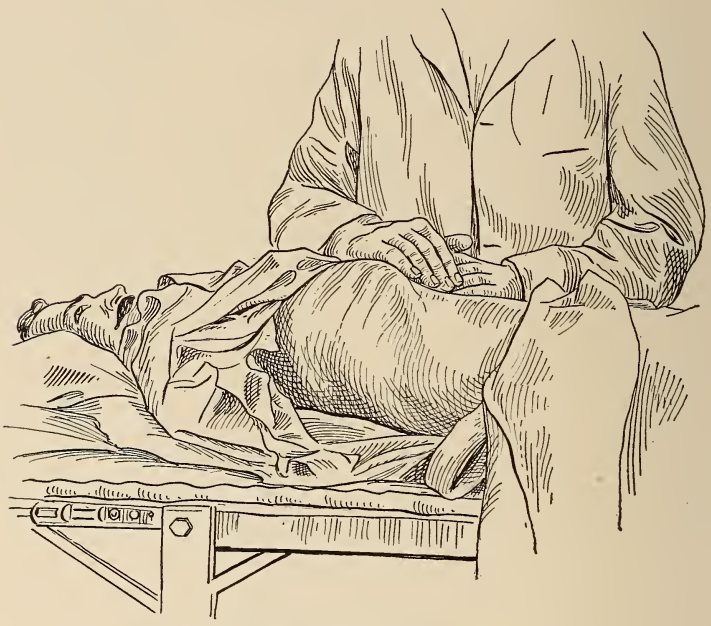


Fig. 463.—Method of palpating the stomach.

Position of Patient.—The patient lies recumbent with the abdominal muscles as relaxed as possible. If it is necessary to obtain greater relaxation than is possible by this posture, the knees should be drawn up and the head and thorax should be slightly raised upon a pillow. Where there is considerable rigidity of the abdominal muscles or in fat individuals, relaxation may be secured by placing the patient in a warm bath.

Technic.—The examination should be performed in a warm room and the physician's hands should be warmed to avoid the muscular spasm produced by cold hands. The patient is instructed to keep his mouth open and to breathe regularly and deeply to induce

the fullest amount of relaxation. The examiner sits or stands beside the patient and places both hands flat upon the abdomen, with the palms down and the fingers slightly flexed, and palpates with the finger-tips. Only gentle manipulations should be employed, as otherwise spasm of the abdominal muscles will be induced and the aim of the examiner will be defeated.

When it is desired to perform deep palpation for the recognition of deep-seated tumors, one hand is superimposed upon the other, the upper hand making the pressure and the lower one performing the palpation (Fig. 463). Deep palpation is greatly aided by having the

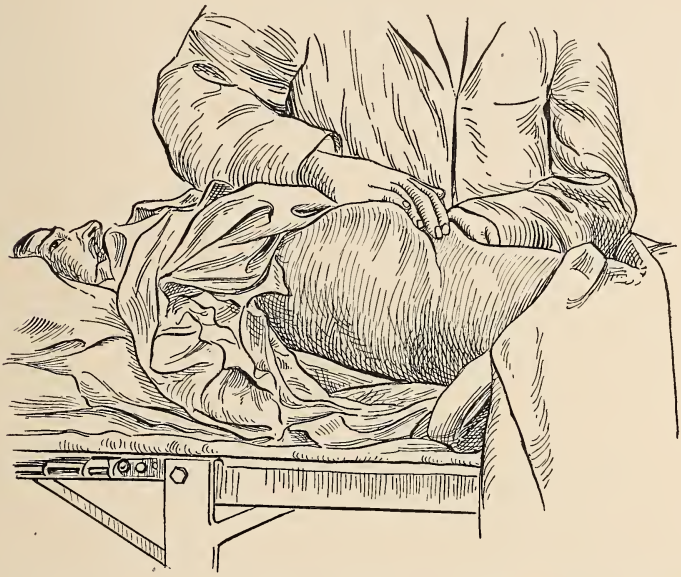


Fig. 464.—Palpating a tumor of the stomach between the fingers of the two hands.

patient breathe deeply; it then becomes possible for the palpating hand to follow the receding abdominal walls with expiration.

In palpating tumors, one hand is used to fix the growth and the other outlines its size and determines its consistency, fixity, or mobility, and the presence or absence of pulsation, tenderness upon pressure, etc. (Fig. 464).

The examiner should first determine the size and position of the stomach. Inflation (page 437) is a great aid to palpation, as it is usually impossible to palpate the outline of an empty organ. Another method of determining the size or the position of the stomach is by means of a long soft-rubber stomach-tube passed into the organ to

such an extent that it lies along the greater curvature. The greater curvature and the pylorus may thus be outlined by palpating the tube through the abdominal walls. All parts of the organ are next carefully palpated with the purpose of determining the presence or absence of new growths, painful spots, etc. Tumors of the pylorus and the greater curvature are readily palpable. The former are usually situated to the right of the median line, between the xiphoid and the umbilicus, but they have a wide range of motion unless adherent. Tumors of the lesser curvature lie to the left of the median line, thus differentiating them from those of the gall-bladder. They are less freely movable than those of the pylorus. Tumors of the cardia are seldom palpable. Changing the position of the patient to a lateral one is often of service in rendering a growth more accessible to the examiner. The knee-chest posture is also of value, as deep-seated movable tumors then fall forward toward the anterior abdominal wall.

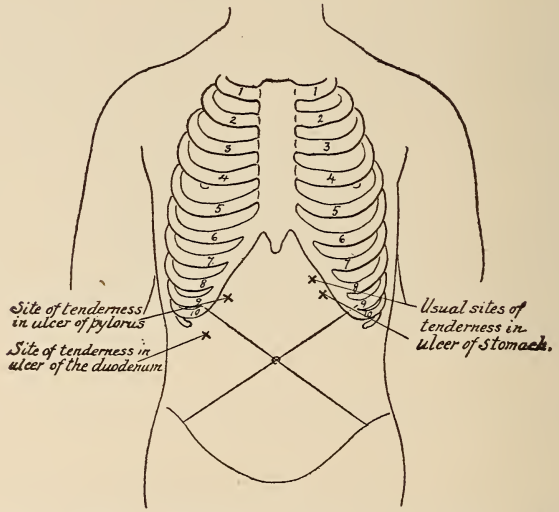


FIG. 465.—Points of pressure tenderness in ulcer of the stomach. (Mayo Robson in Keen's surgery.)

Eliciting tender spots on palpation is frequently also a diagnostic aid. In organic diseases, such as ulcer, cancer, gastritis, etc., pain is spontaneous and is increased upon pressure, while in nervous conditions it is generally diminished or relieved on pressure. In gastritis and nervous affections the pain is diffuse, while in ulcer and cancer it is usually localized to a small circumscribed area. The most common points of tenderness for ulcer are between the left costal margin and

the mid-line (Fig. 465); points of pressure tenderness are also at times found 1 to 2 inches (2.5 to 5 cm.) to the left of the spine, in the neighborhood of the twelfth dorsal vertebra (Fig. 466). In affections of the gall-bladder similar tender points will be frequently found more to the right of the spinal column.

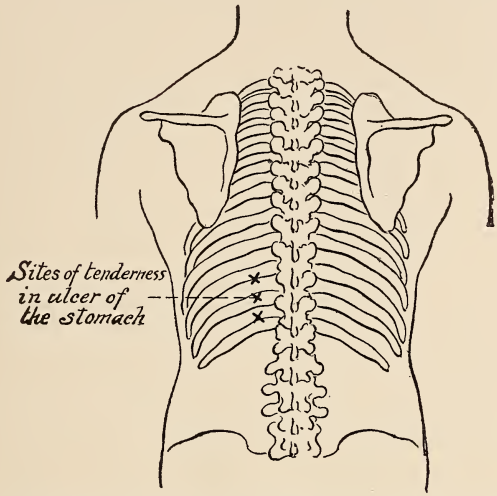


Fig. 466.—Points of pressure tenderness found posteriorly in ulcer of the stomach. (Mayo Robson in Keen's Surgery.)

PERCUSSION.

Only the greater curvature and the portion of the anterior surface of the stomach in contact with the anterior abdominal wall are accessible for percussion, consequently the chief use of this method is to determine the shape and size of the stomach. Percussion of the stomach, even under the most favorable conditions, is unreliable, on account of the proximity of other air-containing organs. The chief source of error is the resonance of the transverse colon, which may be confused with that of the stomach. To avoid this the stomach may be distended with gas and the colon with fluid, or the colon may be inflated and the patient may drink one or more glasses of water. In either case a contrast between the tympany of the one and the dulness of the other will be obtained on percussion. The percussion note over the stomach is a high-pitched metallic tympany, but it will vary much, depending upon whether the stomach is empty, whether it is full of food, or simply contains air. Percussion should be performed when the stomach contains some air; under inflation of the organ percussion furnishes even more valuable results.

Position of the Patient.—The patient should lie in the recumbent posture.

Technic.—The palmar surface of the middle finger of the left hand is laid upon the area it is intended to percuss and is held firmly against the surface, while with the flexed middle finger of the right hand a number of sharp taps or blows are struck (Fig. 467). The force of the

Fig. 467.—Percussion of the stomach.

percussion should, as a rule, be very light, but, if it is desired to make out a deeply placed growth, firm heavy percussion will be required. The same is true when the abdominal walls are very thick. Having outlined the stomach with the patient recumbent, the percussion should be performed with the patient upright to determine if the organ sinks down from its normal position.

AUSCULTATION.

By listening to sounds produced within the esophagus during the swallowing of fluids and to sounds originating within the stomach itself, certain information of diagnostic importance may be obtained. By the first method it is possible to determine whether there be an obstruction of the cardia or not. It is carried out as follows:

The operator listens with his stethoscope placed over the esophagus, that is, to the left of the ensiform cartilage or to the left of the spinal column opposite the ninth or tenth dorsal vertebra while the patient is swallowing fluids. Two sounds are thus heard: first, a spurting sound that immediately follows the act of swallowing, and a second sound, more rattling in character, known as the "deglutition murmur," which is heard six or seven seconds (sometimes as much as twelve seconds) later; it represents the passing of food through the cardiac orifice into the stomach. If this second sound is constantly absent, more or less complete occlusion of the cardia is presumable.

The succussion or splashing sounds that originate in the stomach itself are of greater diagnostic importance. In order to obtain these sounds the stomach must contain air and be partly filled with fluid. The patient lies recumbent and the operator listens with his ear near the abdomen while he taps the abdominal wall in the region of the stomach with his finger-tips. Succussion sounds may also be elicited by moving the patient quickly from side to side. These sounds should be differentiated from other gurgling sounds which are heard when the stomach contains only air or is empty. Succussion in itself is of no diagnostic importance, for it may be heard in a normal stomach containing a quantity of fluid. It is pathological, however, if obtained *when the stomach should normally be empty*, that is, in the morning before breakfast, three hours after a test breakfast, or seven hours after a test dinner. It then indicates a condition of atony or deficient motility. When succussion is heard over an abnormally large area, or beyond the normal boundaries of the organ, it indicates dilatation or gastroptosis. The outlines of the stomach may be mapped out with considerable accuracy by tapping first from above downward, and then from side to side, the examiner listening the while with a stethoscope placed over the stomach and noting where the splashing sounds stop.

INFLATION OF THE STOMACH.

The stomach may be inflated for diagnostic purposes to determine its size, shape, and position, and to establish the presence or absence of tumors. It is of great aid to inspection, palpation, or percussion.

The inflation may be performed by means of effervescent solutions giving off carbonic acid gas or by means of air introduced into the stomach through a tube. Inflation by the latter method is safer, as it is under the direct control of the operator and may be

stopped at any moment if desired; furthermore, the distention may be immediately relieved if necessary. On the other hand, distention by means of carbonic acid gas is of great advantage in nervous individuals who fear the stomach-tube. It is not always satisfactory, however, as the dosage may not be large enough to generate sufficient gas in a capacious stomach or, if too much gas is formed, it may produce pain and vomiting. With either method some caution must be observed and the inflation must be immediately stopped if pain be produced. Inflation is contraindicated in recent hemorrhage of the stomach, in suspected gastric ulcer, in advanced cardiac disease, and in advanced arterial disease.

Under distention the stomach is raised from the neighboring organs and its limits thus become more clearly outlined, so that conditions of dilatation, gastroptosis, and hour-glass contractions may be distinguished and tumors may be rendered more pronounced. Before performing inflation in the case of suspected gastric tumor, the abdomen should be carefully examined and the exact situation of the growth noted; by then noting the position of the growth after inflation it can be determined whether the growth is connected with the stomach and whether it is fixed by adhesions or is movable. Frequently under inflation it is possible to determine by sight and by palpation the direct continuity between the stomach and the tumor. Tumors of the pylorus and of the anterior stomach wall become more prominent, while those of the posterior wall become less so when the stomach is inflated. Tumors of the pylorus generally move downward and to the right under inflation. Tumors of the lesser curvature near the cardia are displaced to the right under the liver. At the same time spurious tumors due to spasm disappear.

Apparatus.—For inflation with carbonic acid gas no apparatus is required. A stomach-tube should be at hand, however, for the purpose of relieving the patient of distention from gas if necessary.

To inflate with air an ordinary stomach-tube 30 inches (75 cm.) long, of soft rubber, to the proximal end of which a double cautery bulb or a Davidson syringe is attached, will be required (Fig. 468).

Position of the Patient.—If desired, the tube may be passed with the patient sitting up, but the inflation and the examination should be carried out with the patient recumbent and with the chest and abdomen well exposed to view.

Technic.—1. *By Carbonic Acid Gas.*—The patient is given 1 dram (3.9 gm.) of bicarbonate of soda dissolved in 3 ounces (89 c.c.) of water, and then a little less than 1 dram (3.9 gm.) of tartaric acid

dissolved in 3 ounces (89 c.c.) of water. As the two solutions come in contact, carbonic acid gas is generated and the stomach is thereby distended. In dilatation of the stomach, however, it may be necessary to give a second dose to obtain sufficient distention for the purpose of mapping out the outlines of the organ.

2. *By Air.*—To inflate a stomach successfully with air through a tube it is essential that the patient be accustomed to the passage of the stomach-tube—the tube should certainly have been passed at least once previously. The tube is inserted as follows: The patient is instructed to open the mouth and the tube, moistened with water or glycerin, is passed along the roof of the mouth to the pharynx. From

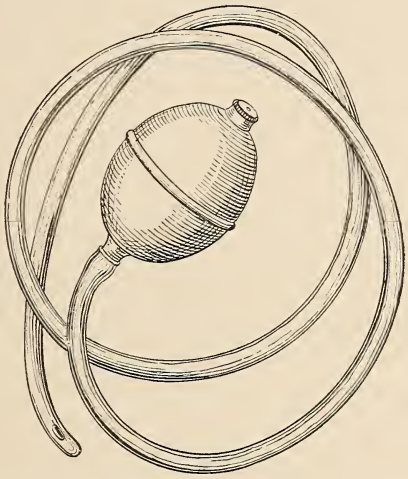


FIG. 468.—Stomach-tube and Davidson syringe for inflating the stomach.

this point it is advanced partly by swallowing efforts on the part of the patient and partly by the operator who pushes it on until it has passed a sufficient distance to have carried it beyond the cardia. By alternately compressing and relaxing the inflation bulb the stomach is then gently pumped up with air until it is sufficiently distended for the purposes of the examination. In the case of an insufficiency of the pylorus it may be impossible to distend the stomach, the gas being expelled on into the small gut. This will be evidenced by a generalized swelling of the abdomen, instead of a distention localized in the region of the stomach.

As soon as the examination is completed, the inflation bulb is removed from the end of the tube and the air is allowed to escape so as to avoid the disagreeable distention. The abdomen may be kneaded to facilitate the escape of the air.

EXTRACTION OF THE STOMACH CONTENTS FOR EXAMINATION.

The contents of the stomach may be removed for purposes of diagnosis when it is desired to examine the gastric secretion chemically and to test the motor functions of the stomach. Such examination often gives results of value both diagnostically and prognostically, but, while gastric analysis is of great importance, the results obtained by such examination must not be relied upon to the exclusion of other methods of diagnosis, as they are by no means final. In all cases the history and the results of physical examination should be given due consideration.

To test the digestive power of the stomach it is necessary to examine the contents at the height of digestion. In other cases, as when hypersecretion or disturbance of the motor power of the stomach is suspected, the contents of the fasting stomach should be examined. Normally, the stomach should be empty within eight hours after a full meal, and if empty it should not secrete hydrochloric acid. If, therefore, the contents of the stomach, removed in the morning before any food has been taken since the evening before, show the presence of food or if a considerable quantity of fluid containing free hydrochloric acid is obtained, it points in the former case to motor insufficiency and in the latter to hypersecretion.

Test Meals.—To obtain results from which comparisons may be drawn the patient should be given on an empty stomach a meal of a definite composition and the contents of the stomach should be removed after a definite lapse of time. For this purpose either a test breakfast or a mid-day test dinner is employed.

The Ewald-Boas test breakfast consists of one or two rolls—between 1 and 2 ounces (35 and 70 gm.), a cup of tea without sugar or milk, or 10 to 14 ounces (300 to 400 c.c.) of water. This is given upon an empty stomach in the morning and removed in one hour.

The Riegel test dinner consists of a large plate of meat soup—about 14 ounces (400 c.c.), a large portion of beefsteak or other meat, weighing 5 to 7 ounces (150 to 200 c.c.), mashed potatoes—1 1/2 ounces (50 gm.), and a roll—1 ounce (35 gm.). The contents of the stomach are removed and examined three or four hours later.

Examination of the Stomach Contents.—The object of a gastric analysis is twofold: First, to determine the presence or absence of constituents which are normally present, and, second, to ascertain whether other substances exist which should normally be absent. Normally, the gastric contents one hour after a test breakfast consist

of from 1 to 2 1/3 ounces (30 to 70 c.c.) of acid material which upon filtration yields a clear yellow or yellowish-brown fluid. Upon analysis this contains a total acidity of 40 to 60 (0.15 to 0.21 per cent.), free hydrochloric acid 25 to 50 (0.1 to 0.2 per cent.), pepsin, rennin, albumoses, peptones, maltose, achroödextrin, and erythrodextrin.

The technic of gastric analysis will be found in works upon clinical laboratory methods. Such examination, however, should be made along the following lines:

1. *Macroscopical examination*, noting the quantity, character, odor, reaction, etc.

2. *Microscopical examination.*

3. *Chemical Examination.*—This should include tests to determine the presence or absence of free hydrochloric acid and of combined hydrochloric acid, the degree of total acidity, the presence of lactic acid, the presence of volatile acids, the products of digestion, the presence of rennin and pepsin, and the character of the carbohydrates.

The Significance of Variations in the Composition of the Gastric Secretion.—*Hyperchlorhydria.*—Free hydrochloric acid is found in excess in the early stages of chronic gastritis, in gastric neuroses, in gastric ulcer, and in hypersecretion. It points strongly against cancer except in cases where an ulcer is undergoing malignant change.

Hypochlorhydria.—A diminished secretion of hydrochloric acid occurs in the late stages of chronic gastritis, in gastric neuroses, in gastric atrophy, in dilatation of the stomach, in the early stages of gastric cancer, and sometimes in ulcer when associated with chronic gastritis or a cachectic condition. It is also diminished in fevers, wasting diseases, pernicious anemia, chlorosis, neurasthenia, etc.

Anachlorhydria.—Hydrochloric acid is absent when the secreting glands have been destroyed, as in atrophic catarrh and in cancer of the stomach. A diagnosis of cancer, however, cannot be made on this alone; the hydrochloric acid must be constantly absent and other corroborative facts must be present.

An increase in the total acidity may be the result of excessive output of hydrochloric acid or it may be caused by organic acids (lactic, butyric, and acetic).

A diminished total acidity denotes a deficiency in the amount of hydrochloric acid, the significance of which has been mentioned above.

Lactic acid is the result of bacterial fermentation. It is found in appreciable amounts only when hydrochloric acid is absent and in

general signifies insufficiency of the motor power and stagnation of the stomach contents, as is found in dilatation, obstruction of the pylorus, and cancer. The presence of lactic acid alone is not diagnostic of cancer, as small amounts may be found after a meat diet and may also be present in other pathological conditions, nor does its absence prove the nonexistence of cancer. When, however, it is found in considerable amount and is associated with an absence of hydrochloric acid and with deficient motility, it is strongly suggestive of cancer, especially if the Oppler-Boas bacillus is also present.

Pepsin and rennin are only absent when profound organic changes have resulted in an almost complete destruction of the gastric mucous membrane as the result of chronic inflammation, severe atrophy, etc. The presence or absence of these ferments is thus of importance in the diagnosis between an organic change and a functional condition.

Extraction of the Stomach Contents.—The stomach contents may be removed through a stomach-tube either by the aspiration or expression method. The expression method answers in the great

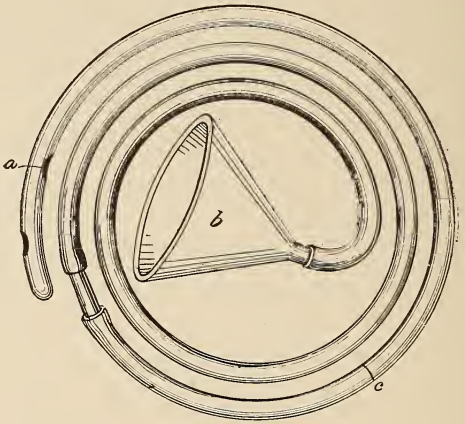


Fig. 469.—Stomach-tube and funnel for expressing the stomach contents. *a*, Showing the lateral fenestræ; *b*, funnel; *c*, mark to indicate the distance from the incisor teeth to the stomach.

majority of cases, but it may fail where the contents of the stomach are not fluid enough to flow through the tube. The use of the stomach-tube is contraindicated in the presence of aortic aneurysm, in patients liable to cerebral hemorrhage, or in those who have recently suffered from gastric or pulmonary hemorrhages, in those who are very weak, in those suffering from severe pulmonary or cardiac troubles, etc.

Apparatus.—When the expression method of removing the stomach

contents is employed the following apparatus will be required: A soft-rubber stomach-tube about 30 inches (75 cm.) long and 1/4 of an inch (6 mm.) in caliber, with two smooth-edged lateral openings and a blind end, connected by a piece of glass tubing 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) long to 2 feet (60 cm.) of rubber tubing, to the end of which a glass funnel is attached (Fig. 469).

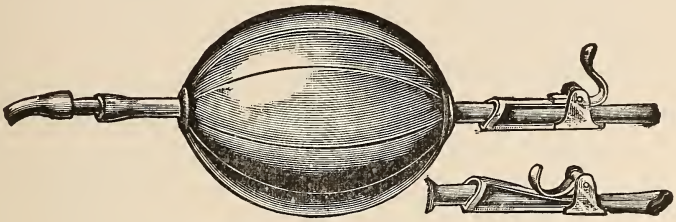


FIG. 470.—Boas' aspirating bulb.

When aspiration is employed, the stomach-tube may be connected with a bottle aspirator, with a stomach-pump, or with a rubber-bulb form of aspirator, such as Boas employs (Fig. 470). The bottle aspirator (Fig. 471) consists of a large glass bottle supplied with a tightly fitting rubber stopper through which two glass tubes-pass; one of these is connected with the stomach-tube while to the other a Potain syringe is attached, by means of which the air in the bottle is exhausted.

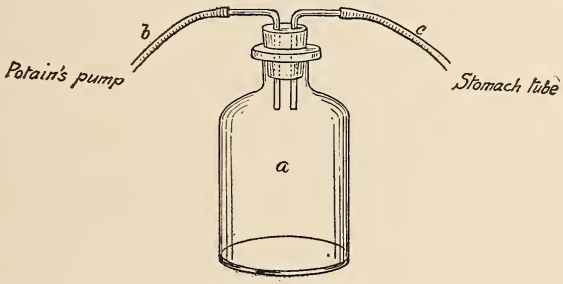


FIG. 471.—Bottle arranged for aspirating the stomach contents.
a, Large glass bottle; *b*, tubing connected with a Potain aspirator; *c*, the stomach-tube.

Position of the Patient.—The patient is seated upright in a chair or in bed.

Technic.—Any artificial teeth or plates should be removed from the patient's mouth and he should be protected by a towel or an apron fastened about the neck. A small bowl should be given to him for the purpose of receiving any excessive secretion of mucus or saliva which may collect in the mouth. The tube is moistened in warm water,

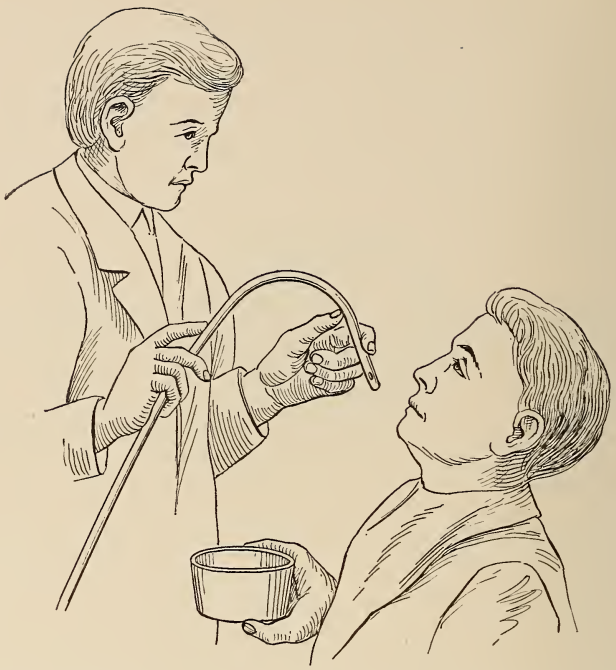


Fig. 472.—Introducing the stomach-tube. First step, imparting a curve to the end of the tube for its more easy passage.

Fig. 473.—Introducing the stomach-tube. Second step.

FIG. 474.—Introducing the stomach-tube. Third step.

FIG. 475.—Aspiration of the stomach contents. First step.

or is well lubricated with glycerin and is passed into the patient's open mouth back to the pharynx. The patient is then requested to swallow, and the instrument is thus advanced into the esophagus, partly by the swallowing action and partly by the operator (Fig. 473). During this maneuver the patient is instructed to breathe regularly and deeply, even if a sense of suffocation is produced, and to hold the head slightly forward to allow the escape of the saliva which collects in

Fig. 476.—Aspiration of the stomach contents. Second step.

the throat (Fig. 474). As soon as the tube has passed the entrance of the esophagus it may be readily pushed on into the stomach without any difficulty. The distance from the incisor teeth to the cardia is about 16 inches (40 cm.) and to the lower border of the healthy stomach about 22 inches (55 cm.), but in pathological conditions, as in dilatation, for example, it may be more. When the tube has been introduced for the proper distance, the contents of the organ are removed, either by expression or by suction furnished from one of the forms of aspirating apparatus described above.

Expression of the stomach contents is accomplished by pressing over the region of the stomach while the patient bends forward and strains as if at stool. The proximal end of the tube is in the meantime lowered over a dish or bowl to a point below the level of the stomach.

Aspiration with the Boas aspirator is performed as follows: With the clamp closed the operator compresses the bulb (Fig. 475) and then releases it, thus filling the bulb with the stomach contents. The clamp is then opened and the bulb is compressed, causing the contents to be forced out into a receptacle (Fig. 476).

Variation in Technic.—Einhorn employs a small bucket for withdrawing samples of the stomach contents at various periods of digestion. In this way the chemical composition of the gastric juice at any time may be ascertained, and also the functional activity of the stomach may be determined, by noting the progress of digestion at any given time after the administration of a test meal.

Fig. 477. Einhorn's stomach bucket.

Einhorn's apparatus consists of an olive-shaped capsule of silver 11/16 inch (17 mm.) long and 5/16 inch (8 mm.) wide. It is provided with an opening in the top, above which is a cross-bar to which a heavy silk thread is attached (Fig. 477). The small bucket is moistened and placed well back on the patient's tongue whence it is readily swallowed. It is allowed to remain in the stomach five minutes and is then carefully removed by drawing on the thread and with it sufficient of the stomach contents for an ordinary examination of the acidity, etc.

TEST OF THE MOTOR FUNCTION OF THE STOMACH.

By the motor power of the stomach is meant the ability of that organ to propel its contents into the intestine. When this function is deficient, as from obstruction of the pylorus due to cancer, ulcer, etc., or from impairment of the gastric musculature, food accumulates in the stomach and dilatation finally results. Early recognition of perversion of the motor power is thus of great importance. There are a number of tests for determining the motor function of the stomach, among which are the following:

Leube's Test.—This consists in giving the patient a test meal composed of a plate of soup, a beefsteak, and a roll. If the stomach is empty seven hours later and nothing can be removed by lavage,

the motor power is normal; on the other hand, if food remains in the stomach longer, the motor power is deficient, the degree of impairment being indicated by the quantity and the character of the food remaining.

Ewald's Test.—This consists in administering salol to a patient after a meal and noting the length of time before salicylic acid appears in the urine. Salol is unaffected by the gastric juice, but is split into salicylic acid and carbolic acid in the intestine. In performing this test the bladder is first emptied; the patient is then given 15 grains (1 gm.) of salol in two gelatin-coated capsules and is instructed to urinate at intervals of half an hour for two hours and to preserve the specimens separately; these are later tested with neutral ferric chlorid solution for the presence of salicylic acid. In the presence of salicylic acid the test gives a violet-blue color. In normal cases the salicylic acid should be recognized in the urine in from thirty to seventy-five minutes. Delay in its appearance indicates deficient motor power.

Iodipin Test.—This drug is unaltered by the gastric juice, but in the intestine it is split up and iodin is absorbed and eliminated in the saliva. Fifteen grains (1 gm.) of iodipin are administered in gelatin-coated capsules in the morning with breakfast and the saliva is then tested with starch-paper and nitric acid for iodin every fifteen minutes. In a normal case the iodin is recognized in the sailva within about an hour.

TEST OF THE ABSORPTION POWER OF THE STOMACH.

The usual method of determining this is by the test known as that of Penzoldt and Faber. It is performed as follows: 3 grains (0.2 gm.) of chemically pure potassium iodid are given in a gelatin-coated capsule *on an empty stomach*, and the urine or the saliva is then tested with starch-paper and fuming nitric acid every few minutes for iodin. Its presence is indicated by a blue or a violet reaction. Iodin should normally be detected in the saliva and urine in from six and a half to fifteen minutes after the ingestion of the iodid of potassium, while its appearance is considerably delayed if the absorption power is interfered with.

TRANSILLUMINATION OF THE STOMACH, OR GASTRODIAPHANY.

A method introduced by Einhorn, which consists of transilluminating the stomach by means of a small electric light fastened to the end of a rubber tube. By this method of diagnosis the position and size of the stomach may be determined, and the presence and position of a

growth or a thickening of the anterior wall of the stomach may be recognized from the lack of transparency. It is of value in the diagnosis of dilatation and in the differentiation of this condition from gastroptosis. In the former the illuminated area is larger than normal, while in the latter it is small and situated low down. Transillumination, however, is not used as a routine, since it is complicated and requires special apparatus; furthermore, there are simpler methods of determining the size and position of the organ. One advantage of the method, however, is that the organ is seen in its natural condition, whereas under inflation it is apt to be stretched beyond the normal. To employ the method successfully it is necessary that the patient be accustomed to the insertion of the stomach-tube, otherwise retching and vomiting will interfere with the examination.

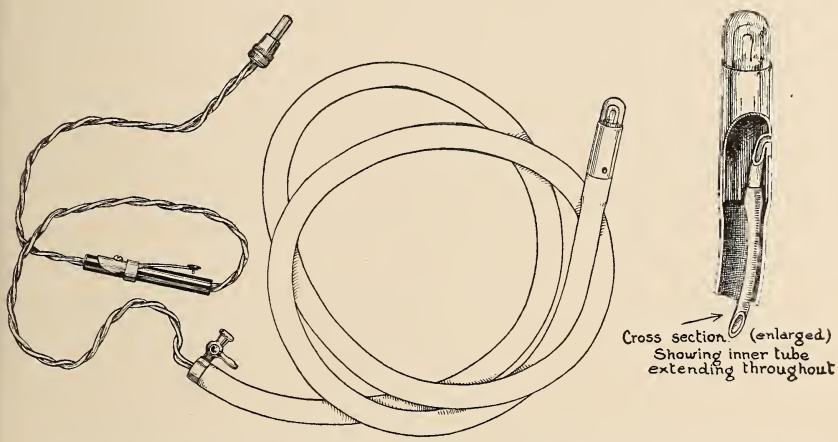


FIG. 478.—Lynch's gastrodiaphane.[1] (From a drawing in the possession of Dr. J. M. Lynch.)

Apparatus.—Einhorn's gastrodiaphane consists of a small Edison incandescent lamp attached to the distal end of a soft-rubber stomach-tube. The wires which convey the electricity to the lamp pass down inside the tube while at the proximal end are two screws for attaching the wires leading from the battery. A six to eight dry-cell battery furnishes the necessary power.

Lynch has modified Einhorn's gastrodiaphane by employing a longer tube—53 inches (135 cm.) long—sufficiently long to pass through the pylorus—and by supplying it with an inner auxiliary tube through which the stomach may be inflated with air or water or the contents of stomach or duodenum may be aspirated (Fig. 478).

[1] Made by the Electro Surgical Instrument Co.

Position of the Patient.—The examination is performed with the patient in the erect position.

Technic.—Transillumination must be performed upon an empty stomach; if necessary, the stomach should be first emptied by means of the stomach-tube. The patient is then given two glasses of water to drink to prevent overheating the stomach from the lamp. The tube is lubricated with glycerin and is carefully guided into the pharynx and the patient is instructed to swallow, the descent of the tube being aided by the operator who pushes it on as soon as it is well within the esophagus. When the lamp is within the stomach, the illumination is turned on and the room is darkened, while the results of the transillumination are noted. A bright luminous area will be noted on the anterior abdominal wall which corresponds in size to the outlines of the stomach. In the case of a tumor of the anterior stomach wall, even if too small to be felt, a dark patch will appear in the illuminated area.

Variation in Technic.—In order to increase the brilliancy of the transillumination, Kemp advocates the introduction of fluorescent media into the stomach preliminary to the passage of the gastrodiaphane. It is claimed for this method that it is possible to perform a satisfactory transillumination even when the abdominal walls are very thick.

Two media are employed: Bisulphate of quinin and fluorescein. The former, which gives a pale violet fluorescence, is administered in the proportion of bisulphate of quinin gr. x (0.65 gm.) to 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) of water with the addition of 5 ♏ (0.30 c.c.) of dilute phosphoric or sulphuric acid to increase the acidity and so intensify the fluorescence.

Fluorescein, which gives a green fluorescence, is administered as follows: The patient is given 8 ounces (236 c.c.) of water to drink in which is dissolved 15 grains (0.97 gm.) of sodium bicarbonate to render alkaline the acid stomach contents. A second drink is then given, consisting of 8 ounces of water (236 c.c.) in which are mixed 1/2 to 1/4 grain (0.008 to 0.0016 gm.) of fluorescein, 1 dram (3.75 c.c.) of glycerin, and 15 grains (0.97 gm.) of bicarbonate of soda. After the administration of the fluorescent medium the lamp is introduced and the examination is proceeded with as above.

GASTROSCOPY.

Gastroscopy consists in the insertion into the stomach of a stiff metal tube, illuminated by electricity, through which the interior of

the organ is inspected. This method of examination was inaugurated by Mikulicz in 1881, but, on account of its limited value and the technical difficulties in the use of the instrument, it never came into general use. Later, in 1896, Rosenheim devised a gastroscope on similar principles. Both these instruments were made with prisms on the principle of the cystoscope. Chevalier Jackson, in 1906, reported results with a gastroscope of his design. Jackson proceeded on entirely different principles, employing large tubes with the illumination at the distal end, similar to those used in direct tracheo-bronchoscopy and esophagoscopy, and he has made it possible to explore the greater part of the stomach by direct vision. Furthermore, he has demonstrated that lesions may be palpated by means of a probe passed through the instrument, applications may be made to diseased areas, foreign bodies may be removed, and sections of tumors may be excised for microscopical examination. Gastroscopy, however, cannot supplant other methods of diagnosis. It necessitates that the patient submit to a general anesthetic and requires such experience and dexterity on the part of the operator for its proper performance as to place it outside the domain of any but experts. Furthermore, with the present instruments the method is somewhat limited in scope, as it is rarely possible to inspect the whole of the interior of the organ. As a rule, from two-thirds to three-fourths of the stomach, including the pylorus, is available for examination, depending upon the range of lateral motion of the hiatus esophagei. A stomach which occupies a vertical position presents the largest area for exploration while the more horizontally the organ is placed the less of it will be available for examination.

According to Jackson, gastroscopy is without danger other than that from the anesthesia. At the same time, the operation requires great skill which is best obtained by practising upon the cadaver. He considers the operation unadvisable under the following conditions: "In the profound cachexia of the last stages of malignancy; in the profound anemia of inanition from known or unknown causes; cardiac, pericardiac, or major vascular lesions; general or local, acute or chronic conditions associated with either dyspnea or dropsical effusions; the late stages of organic diseases, as cirrhosis of the liver, etc." Diseases of the esophagus may, of course, interfere with or render gastroscopy out of the question.

Apparatus.—Jackson's gastroscope (Fig. 479) consists of a cylindrical tube about 32 inches (80 cm.) long with a lumen 2/5 inch (10 mm.) in diameter, and with a thickened distal end. In the wall of the instrument are two small accessory tubes; one through which

the illuminating apparatus is inserted and the other for the purpose of aspirating fluids that may interfere with the examination. To the proximal end of this latter tube an aspirating apparatus is attached. The instrument is also provided with an obturator having a conical tip to facilitate its insertion.

Asepsis.—The tube may be boiled and the light-carrying apparatus may be sterilized by immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution, followed by rinsing in alcohol, or alcohol alone may be employed.

Preparations.—These should include the ordinary preparations for a general anesthetic; that is, the patient is given a cathartic the night before the operation and food is withheld for a period of twelve hours before the operation (see also page 18). It is essential that the

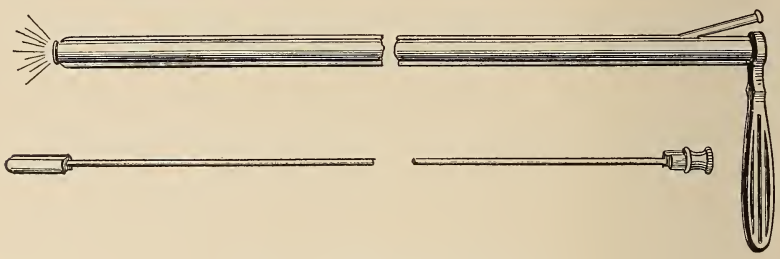


Fig. 479.—Jackson's gastroscope.

stomach be empty when gastroscopy is performed, and, if necessary, lavage of the stomach should be practised three or four hours previous to the operation. In dilatation with atony preliminary lavage is a necessity.

Position of the Patient.—The patient is placed in the recumbent posture with the shoulders brought 4 to 6 inches (10 to 15 cm.) over the edge of the table and the head supported by an assistant seated at the head of the table and to the right, after the manner shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 480). This assistant also controls the mouth gag. Jackson recommends that, as soon as the tube is passed, the head of the table be raised a distance of about 12 inches (30 cm.).

Anesthesia.—General narcosis with ether is employed. Unless the patient is deeply anesthetized, retching will take place, which will not only interfere with the examination, but may make the procedure a dangerous one.

Technic.—The mouth gag is inserted and the operator introduces the left forefinger into the patient's mouth to the base of the tongue or behind the epiglottis and draws the tongue forward. The gastroscope,

well lubricated, is then introduced held in the operator's right hand, following the forefinger, already in the patient's mouth, as a guide (Fig. 481). At this stage the assistant who controls the patient's

FIG. 480.—Position of patient for gastroscopy. (After Jackson.)

head should bend the patient's neck well backward so as to bring the mouth and esophagus in as straight a line as possible. As soon as the instrument has been passed beyond the entrance of the esophagus, the obturator is withdrawn and the light is turned on. The instru-

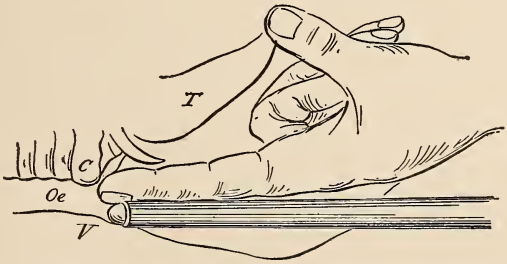


FIG. 481.—Method of inserting the gastroscope. (After Jackson.)

ment is passed the rest of the way entirely by sight, care being taken to avoid compressing the trachea by the point of the instrument. To pass the hiatus at the diaphragm, the instrument is rotated in such a

way that the long axis of a cross section of the tube corresponds to that of the hiatus (this extends from behind and the right to the front and the left). To pass the abdominal esophagus as it bends to the left, the head and neck of the patient are turned to the right (Fig. 482). When the tube has entered the stomach, the interior of the organ should be systematically explored according to the technic described by Jackson,[1] which the writer takes the liberty of quoting:

"There are two plans of exploration, both of which should be carried out. First, the gastroscope should be passed down carefully

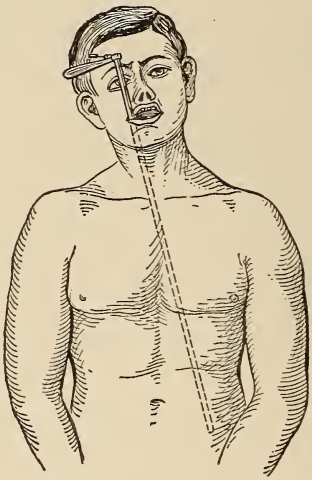


Fig. 482.—Showing the head and neck of patient drawn to the right to allow the instrument to pass through the hiatus and abdominal esophagus. (After Jackson.)

and gently to the greater curvature, inspecting the anterior and posterior walls. At times these walls do not seem to be fully collapsed ahead of the tube, and one will have to be examined first, then the other. Then the tube is withdrawn, inclined slightly laterally in the same plane, then pushed gently downward again in a new series of folds. This is repeated until the extreme pyloric limit is reached. To reach this limit the head and neck of the patient are moved to the left, with the tube below the cardia (Fig. 483).

"After the whole possible range has been covered in this way we proceed to the second plan. The tube is passed down until the extremity touches the wall of the greater curvature, in the extreme left of the possible field. Then the tube is moved slowly along the greater curvature, but not in too close contact therewith, until the

[1] Jackson. Tracheo-bronchoscopy, Esophagoscopy, and Gastroscopy, page 149.

extreme right is reached. Withdrawing the tube a centimeter or two, the field is slowly swept again in the same plane, but at a higher level, and so on, upward to the cardia. Next the deft fingers of one skilled in abdominal palpation are called upon to manipulate the unexplored portions over the front of the tube. This is sometimes better accomplished by turning the patient on his side, first on one side, then on the other. During all these manipulations the tube must be withdrawn within the esophagus; when the stomach is in its new position, the gastroscope is again pushed downward and the newly available surfaces are explored. Should retching supervene while the tube is in

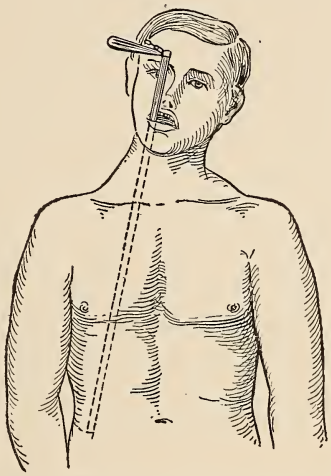


FIG. 483.—Showing the patient's head and neck turned to the left to allow the instrument to reach the pyloric end. (After Jackson.)

the esophagus, no harm will result, but when the tube is in the stomach retching is the signal for immediate withdrawal of the gastroscope until the distal end of the tube is above the diaphragm.

"The vertical diameter of the stomach is easily determined by measurement. The depth from the teeth to the cardia is taken, then the gastroscope is passed on down until the greater curvature is encountered, and the distance from the teeth is again taken. The difference between this and the first measurement gives the vertical diameter of the stomach at this point. Care must be used that the measurements are not rendered inaccurate by pushing the greater curvature downward, which is exceedingly easy to do without knowing it if the sense of touch is relied upon to determine when the lower wall is reached. If the downward progress of the gastroscope is watched through the upper orifice it is easy to see when the wall at the greater curvature

is touched. Having taken our measurements, we then place the obturator externally parallel to the tube within and indicate to the abdominal manipulator the exact position of the lower end of the tube, which he can then mark on the skin, giving thus with absolute accuracy the exact location of the greater curvature of the empty stomach at that point. Care must be taken, of course, to resterilize the obturator should it touch anything unclean."

SKIAGRAPHY.

The X-ray is useful in locating foreign bodies impermeable to the rays and to some extent in determining the size and position of the organ. By inserting a long soft stomach-tube, which is filled with bismuth or shot, in the stomach along the greater curvature and then taking an X-ray while the patient is in the erect position, the outline of the stomach and position of the pylorus have been mapped out. Another method of determining the size of the stomach is to have the patient swallow keratin-coated capsules of bismuth subnitrate or to give the patient on an empty stomach a pint (473.11 c.c.) of milk or gruel into which an ounce (31.10 gm.) of bismuth subnitrate is suspended by a thorough mixing. Another mixture frequently used, and with which there is no danger of nitrite poisoning, is the oxychlorid of bismuth 2 ounces (62. 20 gm.) suspended in a bottle of kumiss. These may be administered shortly before the skiagraph is taken.

EXPLORATORY LAPAROTOMY.

An exploratory laparotomy is the most valuable of all the methods of diagnosis in diseases of the stomach, and in many cases it is the only method by which a correct diagnosis can be arrived at. It is an operation that only requires a small incision and which, if properly carried out, is without danger to the patient. The ease and slight risk with which it may be performed are, however, apt to lead to neglect of other simpler methods of diagnosis and result in its employment in far too radical a manner. It is only justifiable where a careful trial of other means has failed to establish a diagnosis. Thus, for example, in cases where a cancerous growth is strongly suspected but its presence cannot be verified, or where a palpable tumor of the stomach is present, and there is a question as to its character and whether it can be removed or not, an exploratory incision is certainly a justifiable procedure and its prompt performance is clearly indicated, since an early recognition of the trouble furnishes the only hope of cure. The surgeon must be

convinced, however, that he can accomplish something for the relief of the patient before it is attempted, and he must be prepared to carry out any operative procedure that seems indicated. To perform an exploratory laparotomy simply for the purpose of making a correct diagnosis in an individual who is manifestly not fit for a severe operation or upon whom it is evident that the performance of a gastro-enterostomy would give scarcely any hope for relief of his symptoms must be condemned.

Therapeutic Measures.

LAVAGE OF THE STOMACH.

Lavage consists in washing out the stomach by introducing water or other fluids through a stomach-tube or catheter and then siphoning it off. It is a most useful therapeutic procedure, and if performed with proper precautions is without danger.

Indications.—Gastric lavage may be required for the following purposes: (1) To remove poison and drugs from the stomach. (2) To remove mucus, undigested and fermenting food from a dilated or atonic stomach when the stomach is unable to empty itself of its contents after eight or ten hours. In such conditions lavage is especially valuable, as it cleanses the mucous membrane in preparation for fresh food and thus promotes the appetite; at the same time the stomach is toned and strengthened. (3) To withdraw the irritating material from the stomach in acute gastric indigestion, especially in infants. (4) For the purpose of cleansing the stomach in preparation for gastric operations. (5) In intestinal obstruction and peritonitis with fecal vomiting for the purpose of diminishing the vomiting and at the same time removing toxic material from the digestive tract; and as a preliminary to operation in such cases where it is important to have the stomach empty to avoid the danger of vomited matter entering the air-passages. (6) Finally, lavage may be employed when it is desired to bring medicated solutions in contact with the gastric mucous membrane, though a more efficacious method is by means of the stomach douche.

The contraindications to lavage are practically the same as those given against the use of the stomach-tube for diagnostic purposes, viz., in the presence of recent gastric hemorrhage, in acute inflammation of the stomach, in aortic aneurysm, in advanced uncompensated valvular heart lesions, etc. In cases of marked general arteriosclerosis and in general weakness or prostration it should be used with caution.

Apparatus.—The employment of a stomach-pump is not advisable on account of the danger of injuring the mucous lining of the stomach; instead, an ordinary siphonage apparatus should be employed. This consists of a soft-rubber stomach-tube joined by means of 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) of glass tubing to a piece of rubber tubing 2 or 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) long, to the free end of which a glass funnel having a capacity of about a pint (473.11 c.c.) is fitted (see Fig. 469). The stomach-tube should be about 30 inches (75 c.c.) long, 1/4 to 1/2 an inch (6 to 12 mm.) in diameter, and should be provided preferably with a closed tip and with two lateral openings of fairly large size so as to give passage to solid particles of food (Fig. 484). These openings should be situated as close to the tip as possible. The tube should also have a mark indicating the distance from the upper incisor teeth to the stomach, so that the operator may know when he has passed it a sufficient distance.

Fig. 484.—Enlarged view of the tip of a stomach-tube with a closed end and lateral fenestræ.

For an infant the following apparatus may be employed: A soft rubber catheter, 16 American (24 French) in size, provided with a large lateral eye and joined by a glass connection to 2 feet (60 cm.) of rubber tubing, to the free end of which an 8-ounce (236 c.c.) glass funnel is attached. In addition, a mouth gag may be required.

Asepsis.—The whole apparatus should be sterilized by immersion in an antiseptic solution and then rinsed in water before using. After use it should be well cleaned, care being taken to see that particles of food are not left adhering to the interior of the tube, especially about the lateral windows.

Solutions Employed.—For cleansing purposes boiled lukewarm water is generally employed. To rid the stomach of mucus, alkaline mineral waters, as Carlsbad or Vichy, or Carlsbad salt, 1 dr. (4 gm.) to 1 quart (946 c.c.) of water, or sodium bicarbonate (1 to 5 per cent.), may be employed.

Temperature.—The solution should be of a temperature of from 90° to 100° F.

Quantity.—The stomach should not be overdistended with solution, about a pint (473.11 c.c.) being introduced at a time. The washing-out process is to be continued, however, until the contents of the stomach return clear, provided the patient's condition permits it. In

some cases the process must be repeated ten or twelve times before this is attained.

Time for Lavage.—When employed to remove stagnated food from a dilated stomach, lavage may be performed either in the morning before the first meal or at night, three or four hours after the last meal. The former time is preferable, as the stomach is thus given all possible opportunity for assimilation of its contents and no nourishment is withdrawn. In some cases, however, when the distress caused by the flatulency is such as to interfere with the night's rest, evening lavage is indicated. In very severe cases it may be necessary to wash out the stomach twice a day, night and morning.

Position of Patient.—The patient sits in a chair facing the operator, with the head slightly bent forward. If the patient's condition is such that this is not advisable, the operation may be performed with the patient semiupright in bed. A child should be supported in a sitting position upon the lap of a nurse with its head held forward by an assistant so as to allow saliva and vomitus to escape from the mouth.

Anesthesia.—In case gagging is excessive the pharynx may be sprayed or painted with a 5 per cent. solution of cocain. This is rarely necessary, however, after the first passage of the tube.

Technic.—Any plates or artificial teeth should be removed from the patient's mouth and an apron or large towel should be fastened about the neck and allowed to hang over the chest and lap for protection. The patient should be given a small bowl to catch any vomitus or saliva that may escape from the mouth. The tube is then well moistened with water or glycerin to facilitate its passage. Oily lubricants should be avoided on account of the disagreeable taste. As a rule, with a soft tube it is unnecessary to hold the base of the tongue forward or to guide the tube in place by the fingers. The tube is simply passed along the roof of the patient's mouth until the pharynx is reached, when the patient is instructed to swallow and the instrument, grasped by the pharyngeal muscles, is carried on into the esophagus (see Fig. 473). At first there may be some irritation and gagging, but by having the patient breathe in deeply and regularly this rapidly subsides. When a patient becomes accustomed to the passage of the tube there is very little if any discomfort produced.

As soon as the tube enters the esophagus it is rapidly pushed on into the stomach. Frequently when the tube enters the stomach the contents immediately escape into the funnel; if not, the funnel should be lowered and the contents drained off. To accomplish this it may be necessary, however, to apply some slight pressure over the epigas-

trium, after the method employed in expressing a test-meal (see page 442.)

Having removed the contents of the stomach, or being sure that it is empty, the tube is pinched close to the patient's mouth, and the funnel is elevated slightly and filled with about a pint (473.11 c.c.) of solution (Fig. 485). The compression is then removed from the

Fig. 485.—Showing the method of washing out the stomach. (After Boston.)

tube and almost the entire contents of the funnel is allowed to slowly run into the stomach, enough solution being kept in the funnel, however, to start the siphonage. The funnel is then lowered and the contents of the stomach are siphoned back into the funnel and discarded, care being taken to see that approximately the same quantity returns as was introduced. The process of lavage is continued by alternately pouring solution into the stomach through the funnel and then removing the solution by siphonage. In order to reach all portions of the stomach and more thoroughly cleanse the mucous membrane, it is well to have the patient move about during the lavage;

for example, after one or more washings in the upright position have the patient lie down and then roll first to one side and then to the other.

At the completion of the lavage the tube should be removed as follows: A small quantity of fluid is allowed to remain in the funnel and, as the tube is slowly withdrawn, this is permitted to flow back into the stomach until the end of the tube is in the esophagus. The tube is then tightly pinched to prevent the solution from escaping as the tube is withdrawn over the larynx and through the mouth. The important point is that the tube should not be removed from the stomach empty, as portions of mucous membrane may be drawn into the fenestræ of the tube and be lacerated or otherwise injured.

Fig. 486.—Showing the passage of a stomach-tube through the nose in performing gastric lavage upon infants.

Variation in Technic.—In insane individuals or unruly children who try to prevent the passage of the tube by refusing to open the mouth or by biting the instrument, the tube may be passed through a nostril (Fig. 486). As a rule, this method of introduction is not difficult, as the tube hugs the posterior wall of the pharynx and readily enters the esophagus. A smaller-size tube, however, is required, and care should be taken to see that it is well-lubricated.

THE STOMACH DOUCHE.

Gastric douching consists in irrigating the stomach by means of solutions introduced under pressure. The fluid is preferably introduced through a tube provided with many small lateral openings, so that all portions of the mucous lining of the stomach are irrigated by the solution which flows out in fine streams with considerable force. Either plain water or medicated solutions are employed in the douche.

The stomach douche is useful in slight degrees of motor insufficiency for the purpose of stimulating peristalsis and secretion. It is also employed in neuroses affecting the sensory apparatus of the stomach.

Fig. 487.—An enlarged view of a stomach-douche tube.

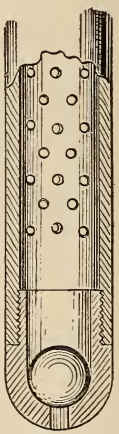


Fig. 488.—Einhorn's apparatus for giving a stomach douche.

Apparatus.—A glass funnel with a capacity of 1 pint (473.11 c.c.), a piece of rubber tubing 2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) long, a glass connecting tube 3 to 4 inches (7 to 10 c.m.) long, and a stomach-tube about 30 inches (75 cm.) long, with a large number of side openings 1/25 to 1/12 inch (1 to 2 mm.) in diameter and a terminal opening 1/8 to 1/6 inch (3 to 4 mm.) in diameter, should be provided (Fig. 487). The large opening in the end of the tube is necessary in

order to drain the solution quickly out of the stomach and at the same time remove any solid particles.

Einhorn has devised a douche apparatus which consists of a rubber tube 26 inches (65 cm.) long and 3/8 inch (9 mm.) in diameter, terminating at the stomach end in a hard-rubber cap with numerous side openings and a large end opening (Fig. 488). Within the tip of this cap lies a freely movable aluminum ball which is prevented by two crossbars from entering the main portion of the tube. This ball falls over the terminal opening as the solution flows into the stomach and causes the fluid to flow out through the small openings. When the current is reversed, the ball is driven upward and the solution is carried off through the large opening.

Asepsis.—The apparatus should be thoroughly cleansed after use and immersed in an antiseptic solution, then rinsed off before use.

Solutions.—Plain boiled water is usually employed. For the removal of mucus, alkaline solutions, as sodium bicarbonate (1 to 5 per cent.), Carlsbad salt 1 dr. (4 gm.) to 1 quart (946 c.c.) of water, etc., are used. As antiseptics and antifermentatives are the following: salicylic acid (0.3 per cent.), sodium salicylate (0.5 to 1 per cent.), boric acid (2 to 3 per cent.), sodium benzoate (1 to 3 per cent.), resorcin (1 to 3 per cent.), creolin (0.5 per cent.), lysol (0.2 to 0.5 per cent.), etc. A solution of silver nitrate in the strength of 0.1 to 0.2 per cent. is sometimes employed as an astringent to diminish sensation and salt solution (0.4 per cent.) to increase gastric secretion. Chloroform water has been recommended as an anodyne in gastralgia.

Temperature.—As a general rule, the solution should be employed warm—at a temperature of 90° to 100° F. Occasionally, however, the alternate use of a warm and a cold douche is found beneficial.

Time for Douching.—The douche should be employed only when the stomach is empty. The most effective time for its use is early in the morning or three to four hours after the first meal.

Amount of Pressure.—To be most effective the solution should be introduced under considerable pressure. The funnel end is consequently raised 3 feet (90 cm.) or more, as the solution is flowing.

Position of the Patient.—The douching may be performed with the patient sitting upright in a chair or in bed, but in order to bring the solution into contact with all portions of the organ this position may be altered from time to time with advantage; that is, changing from the upright to the recumbent and first upon one side and then upon the other.

Anesthesia.—In the presence of excessive irritation or gagging the pharynx may be sprayed with a 5 per cent. solution of cocain as a preliminary to the passage of the tube.

Technic.—The patient is given a small bowl to receive any vomited matter or an excessive flow of saliva and his chest and lap are protected by an apron. The tube is then moistened with warm water or glycerin and is inserted into the patient's mouth, being kept in close contact with the roof of the mouth until the pharynx is reached. From this point on the tube is advanced partly by the action of the pharyngeal muscles as the patient swallows, aided by the operator who gently pushes it onward. The tube is inserted only a sufficient distance to bring the perforated tip within the cardia (Fig. 489), which

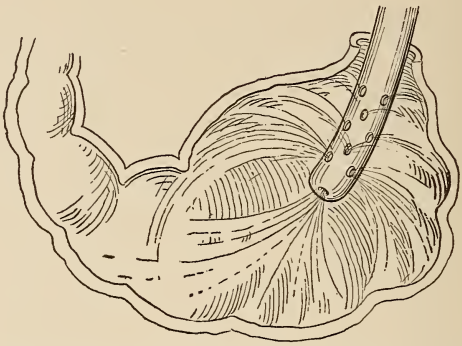


Fig. 489.—Showing the mechanism of the stomach douche. (After Gumprecht.)

is determined by a mark placed upon the tube for that purpose. The funnel end is then raised and a pint (473.11 c.c.) of solution is poured into the funnel end, the tube being pinched until the funnel is filled; the solution is then allowed to flow into the stomach, the funnel end being elevated high enough to obtain the necessary pressure.

To remove the solution the tube is pinched while there is still some liquid in it and is inserted some 4 or 6 inches (10 to 15 cm.) further into the stomach, so that its end will lie in the fluid contents. The funnel end is then lowered, the compression of the tube released, and the fluid withdrawn by siphonage.

The stomach should first be thoroughly washed out in the above manner, with lukewarm water, using several pints for the purpose. The medicated solution is then introduced in the same manner, but should be allowed to remain only from a half minute to a minute. It is then siphoned off, and the stomach is again douched out with warm water. The tube is then removed, care being taken to compress it

between the thumb and forefinger to prevent the fluid dripping from it into the larynx as it is withdrawn.

GAVAGE.

Gavage consists in introducing food into the stomach by means of the stomach-tube. The tube may be passed through the mouth or through the nose. The latter method may be necessary when the patient struggles against the passage of the tube and tries to bite the instrument, and with infants.

This method of feeding may be employed after intubation and tracheotomy, in certain operations about the mouth and throat, in cerebral diseases, when the patient is unconscious, and in acute diseases such as diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhoid fever, etc., when the

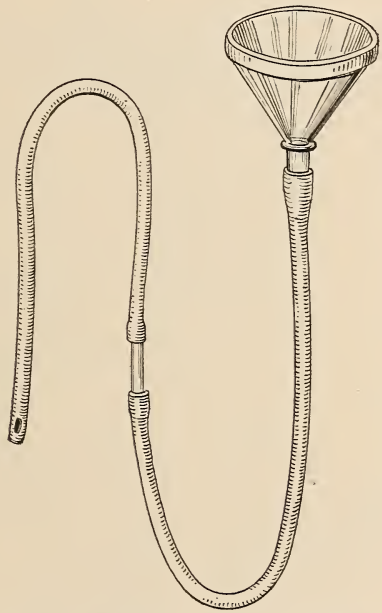


FIG. 490.—Apparatus for nasal gavage.

patient will not take nourishment. It is especially valuable in pharyngeal paralysis when the patient cannot swallow food or liquids. It is a method frequently employed in feeding premature infants, or children suffering from malnutrition, to whom otherwise it would be a difficult matter to give sufficient food.

Apparatus.—The same sort of apparatus as is employed for gastric lavage will be required, viz., a soft stomach-tube 30 inches (75 cm.)

FIG. 491.—Gavage. First step, introduction of the tube.

FIG. 492.—Gavage. Second step, administering the food.

long, 2 feet (60 cm.) of rubber tubing joined to the stomach-tube by a glass connecting tube 3 or 4 inches (7 to 10 cm.) long, and a glass funnel with a capacity of about 1 pint (473.11 cm.) (see Fig. 469). If it is intended to employ the apparatus for nasal feeding, a tube of smaller caliber than that ordinarily used will be required. For young children a No. 10 American (16 French) catheter should take the place of the stomach-tube (Fig. 490).

Asepsis.—Strict asepsis should be observed in the care of the apparatus. Ordinarily a thorough washing and immersion in an

FIG. 493.—Gavage. Third step, showing the tube being compressed as it is removed to prevent leakage.

antiseptic solution followed by a thorough rinsing off with water is sufficient. In contagious cases, as diphtheria, for example, the apparatus should be boiled.

The Food.—The material employed for feeding will, of course, vary according to the indications in the individual case. When the digestive power of the stomach is impaired predigested food should be employed.

The intervals between the feedings of a child should be somewhat increased when gavage is employed.

Position of Patient.—The child should be held flat on its back across the nurse's knees with the head slightly elevated. Its arms and legs may be confined by wrapping it in a sheet from the chin to the knees.

Technic.—The tube or catheter is moistened in warm water or lubricated with glycerin and is passed into the mouth to the base of the tongue and then gently down the esophagus to the desired depth (Fig. 491). In an infant at birth the distance from the alveolus to the cardia is 6 3/4 inches (18 cm.); at two years it is 9 inches (23 cm.); at ten years it is 11 inches (28 cm.), and in an adult it is about 16 inches (40 cm.). After the tube has been inserted to the proper depth, the funnel is elevated and the required amount of food introduced (Fig. 492). The tube is then rapidly withdrawn, pinching it the while so as to prevent any dripping of food into the pharynx and larynx (Fig. 493). The patient should be kept quietly in the recumbent position for some time after the introduction of the food. In cases complicated by gastroenteritis, etc., a preliminary lavage of the stomach with warm water, just before giving the food, is often advisable. It removes mucus and any food remnants of a previous feeding, cleanses the mucous membrane, and at the same time stimulates it to a better absorption of the freshly introduced food.

MASSAGE OF THE STOMACH.

Massage systematically and properly performed is a valuable therapeutic procedure in certain diseases of the stomach. It is applied to this organ with the same object in view as when used upon other muscular organs; that is, to strengthen weak and atonic muscular walls with impaired contractile power. Massage also aids in the propulsion of the stomach contents into the intestine. It is thus employed with success, chiefly in cases of simple atony and of atonic dilatation, and to a lesser degree in dilatation due to pyloric stenosis. Massage is advised by some in gastroptosis for the purpose of strengthening the relaxed ligamentous supports. Finally, it is supposed to stimulate the normal secretions of the stomach, and is recommended by some authorities in cases with impaired gastric secretion and in nervous dyspepsia.

Before recommending massage an exact diagnosis is essential. Massage is contraindicated in acute inflammation of the stomach, in

recent gastric ulcers, in hemorrhage from the stomach, in great distention of the stomach from gas, and in inflammation of the peritoneum. The massage should be performed by one thoroughly familiar with the technic and preferably by the physician himself.

Time for Massage.—This will depend upon the purposes of the treatment. When employed simply for the purpose of toning up and strengthening the stomach wall massage is best performed early in the morning when the stomach is empty. In cases of dilatation, however, the object is to propel the contents of the stomach into the intestines, and the massage is then performed upon a full or partly full stomach. The best time for this, as a rule, is six to seven hours after the principal meal of the day.

Frequency.—The massage, to be of any value, should be performed every day.

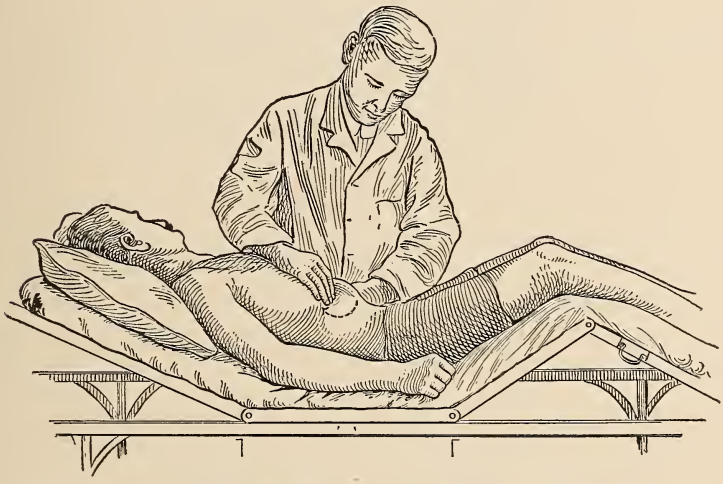


Fig. 494.—Stroking massage applied to the stomach. (After Gant.)

Duration.—During the first treatments the manipulations should be of short duration—about two to three minutes at a sitting—and later, as the patient becomes more accustomed to the treatment, the sitting may be extended to periods of five and ten minutes.

Position of the Patient.—The patient lies upon his back with his head slightly raised and the legs flexed so as to relax the abdominal muscles.

Technic.—Stroking movements (effleurage) and kneading (pétrissage) are the manipulations most employed. In performing effleurage the operator places his left hand upon the right hypochondriac region for the purpose of counterpressure and with his right hand, the

fingers of which are outstretched, he performs stroking movements from the fundus toward the pylorus; *i.e.*, from left to right (Fig. 494).

Kneading of the stomach may alternate with these stroking movements to advantage. In these manipulations large folds of the abdominal wall, including the stomach, are picked up between the thumb and four fingers of the two hands by deep handgrasps and are kneaded by alternately squeezing and relaxing the fingers (Fig. 495).

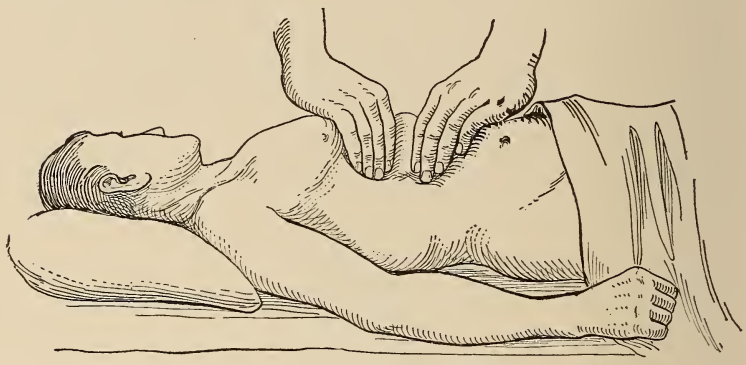


FIG. 495.—Kneading massage applied to the stomach.

The force used in the various movements of massage will depend upon the sensitiveness of the patient, the thickness of the abdominal walls, and the rigidity of the muscles. The manipulations, however, should never produce pain or be disagreeable to the patient.

To accelerate the passage of the stomach contents into the intestines, the fundus of the stomach and contents are grasped through the abdominal walls between the thumb and fingers of the right hand and by propulsive movements directed backward an attempt is made to throw the contents of the stomach toward the pylorus.

ELECTROTHERAPY IN DISEASES OF THE STOMACH.

Electricity has undoubted beneficial effects upon certain diseases of the stomach, although the manner in which the electric current acts is not well understood, and the experimental evidence of its value is both contradictory and in some cases not in accord with the results obtained clinically. It seems probable, however, that electricity increases the motor activity, stimulates the secretion of the gastric juice, and increases the absorption power of the stomach. According to clinical experience, at any rate, its use is followed by favorable results in simple atony, dilatation from atony, hypochlorhydria,

nervous anorexia, nervous vomiting, paresthesia, hyperesthesia, and gastralgias.

Both the faradic and the galvanic currents are employed and they may be used percutaneously or intraventricularly. As to the choice of current and the method of its application, authorities again disagree.

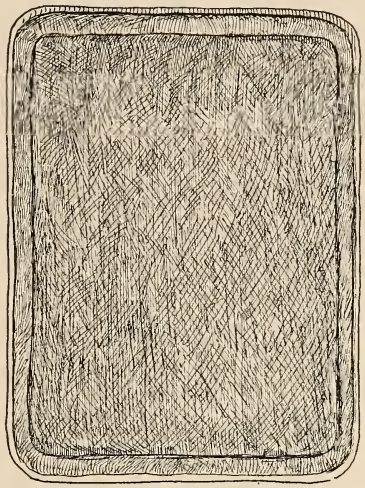


FIG. 496.—Large flat sponge electrode.

The majority, however, advise the use of the faradic currents when the motor functions are diseased and the galvanic in neuroses and in cases where the secretory apparatus is at fault. The intraventricular method seems more desirable when the necessary apparatus is at hand, as the stomach is thus directly treated. External application of

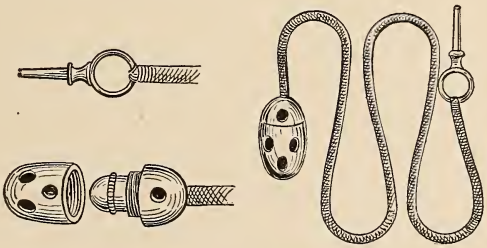


FIG. 497.—Einhorn's deglutible electrode.

electricity, on the other hand, is simpler to carry out and is a less disagreeable method for the patient.

Apparatus.—For the percutaneous application there will be required two curved flat electrodes of about 9 square inches' surface (500 to 600 sq. cm.) (Fig. 496). For intrastomachic application a

special gastric electrode, such as Bardet's, Stockton's, or Wegele's, inserted within a stomach-tube, may be employed or Einhorn's deglutible electrode may be used. The latter (Fig. 497) consists of a hard-rubber shell, shaped like an egg, with numerous small perforations piercing its surface, and within this capsule is a button of copper or brass. A small rubber tube 1/25 inch (1 mm.) in diameter carries fine wires leading from the button to the instrument. A curved plate electrode is connected with the other pole of the battery.

Duration of Application.—Each treatment should consume about ten minutes.

Frequency.—At first treatments are employed daily; after two or three weeks, twice weekly; and, finally, applications are made at weekly intervals until the treatments are discontinued.

Strength of Current.—For galvanism from 15 to 20 ma. are ordinarily used. With the faradic current it is not possible to measure exactly its strength; the current should be strong enough, however, to produce strong and visible contractions of the abdominal wall and back muscles without causing pain.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the recumbent position with the head slightly elevated and legs flexed so as to relax the abdominal muscles.

Technic.—1. *Percutaneous Application.*—The two electrodes are well moistened and the negative pole is placed over the region of the pylorus, the positive over the spine in the region of the seventh or eighth dorsal vertebra. The negative electrode may be held stationary for short periods or may be moved about over the parts with friction during the treatment. Either the faradic or the galvanic current may be employed.

2. *Intrastomachic Application.*—The treatment should be given on an empty stomach, preferably one or two hours after a light breakfast. If necessary, the stomach should be emptied by means of a stomach-tube. When an electrode, such as Wegele's or Stockton's, is employed, it is introduced in the same manner as a stomach-tube. One or two glasses of water are then introduced into the stomach through the tube or, if Einhorn's electrode is used, before the electrode is swallowed. In introducing this latter the patient should be requested to open the mouth widely and the electrode is placed well back in the patient's mouth and the patient is then instructed to swallow. If there is any difficulty in accomplishing this, drinking a glass of water will be of material assistance.

The gastric electrode is connected with the negative pole of the

battery, the positive pole is connected to a plate electrode. This electrode is applied for part of the séance over the region of the stomach, first held in one place for a few moments at a time. A smaller sponge electrode is then substituted and is moved about over the region of the stomach from left to right for several minutes, and is then shifted to the spine in the region of the seventh or eighth dorsal vertebra where it is allowed to remain a minute or more, and finally it is applied once more to the epigastrium over which it is gently moved for a minute or so. The current is then gradually decreased and the gastric electrode removed.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE RECTUM AND COLON.

Anatomic Considerations.

The rectum commences at the sigmoid flexure, opposite the third sacral vertebra, and descends in the middle line of the sacrum and coccyx. As it descends it forms a curve with the concavity forward until it reaches a point about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) below the tip of the coccyx where it turns, forming a sharp angle, and is then continued downward and backward through the thickness of the pelvic floor as the anal canal (Fig. 498). The antero-posterior curves of the rectum

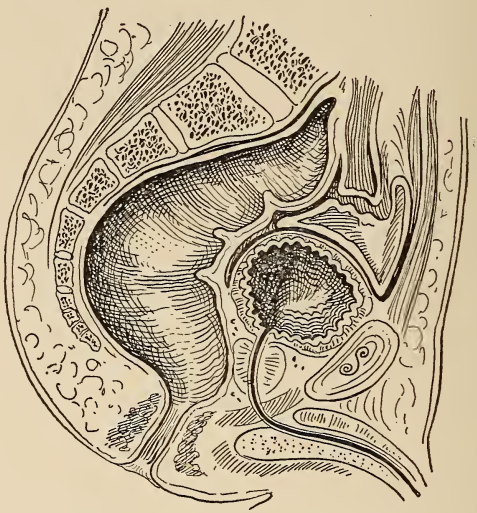


Fig. 498.—Sagittal section of the rectum.

are distinct and a knowledge of their direction is important for the proper introduction of the finger or instruments in making an examination. There are also two slight lateral curves, first to the right and then to the left, but of less practical importance.

For purposes of description the rectum may be divided into the rectum proper and the anal canal.

The rectum proper extends from the middle of the third sacral vertebra to the upper border of the internal sphincter muscle, or to

about the level of the apex of the prostate gland, and measures 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.) in length. This portion of the rectum is sacculated in form, exhibiting three pouches or dilatations, of which the lowest and largest, called the ampulla, measures in some cases nearly 10 inches (25 cm.) in circumference. The constrictions between which lie these dilatations are produced by an infolding of the coats of the bowel in the formation of the so-called rectal valves. In the male, the rectum is in relation anteriorly with the recto-vesical pouch, the trigone of the bladder, the seminal vesicles, and the prostate gland, while in the female, the vagina and the recto-vaginal pouch with the small intestine therein contained lie anteriorly.

The anal canal is about 1 1/2 to 2 inches (3.8 to 5 cm.) long. It extends downward and backward, terminating at the surface of the body as the anus. This portion of the rectum has no peritoneal covering. It is embraced by the internal sphincter muscle and is supported by the levatores ani muscles. At the anus the skin is dark brown in color and puckered up into radiating folds. The anal canal is in relation anteriorly in the male with the bulb and membranous portion of the urethra; and in the female the perineal body separates it from the lower end of the vagina.

FIG. 499.—The rectal valves as seen through the proctoscope. (After Gant.)

Structure.—*The mucous membrane* of the rectum is dark and vascular and is thrown into a series of folds, the most important of which are known as Houston's valves, or the rectal valves. These are three—sometimes two or four—semilunar folds, projecting like transverse shelves into the cavity of the bowel when it is distended. According to the usual arrangement the inferior fold projects from the left wall of the rectum at a point about 2 inches (5 cm.) above the anal orifice; the middle and most constantly present one projects from the

right wall at a point situated 3 inches (7.6 cm.) from the anus; while the superior fold projects from the left wall near the third sacral vertebra, or at a point about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) above the middle fold (Fig. 499). These valves are attached to the walls of the rectum for a distance of from 1/3 to 1/2 its circumference and protrude into its cavity to varying degrees. Their function seems to be to assist the sphincters and to serve to support the fecal mass. They may be the cause of difficulty in making digital examinations and they may act as obstacles to the passage of a rectal tube.

In the anal canal the mucous membrane is thrown into a series of longitudinal folds, five to twelve in number, called the columns of Morgagni. They are about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) in length, and are prolonged upward from the radiating folds about the anus. Stretched between these columns at their inferior ends are semilunar folds of mucous membrane forming pouches that open upward, known as the valves of Morgagni (Fig. 500).

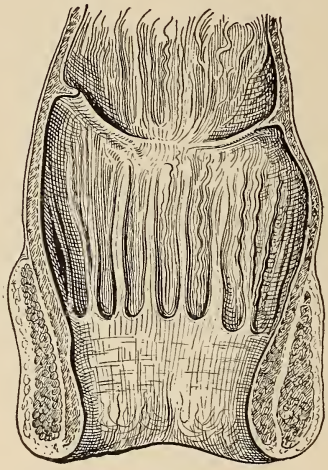


Fig. 500.—The anal canal, showing the columns and valves of Morgagni.

The *muscular* wall of the rectum is composed of two layers, longitudinal and circular, and is quite thick. The internal circular layer is especially well developed in the anal canal where it forms the internal sphincter.

The Peritoneal Coat.—The rectum has no peritoneal coat posteriorly, but the upper portion is covered anteriorly and laterally. The lateral portion of peritoneum gradually disappears as the rectum is traced downward, and at a point 3 to 3 1/2 inches (7.6 to 8.9 cm.) from the anus the anterior portion is reflected from the rectum to the bladder in

the male and to the vagina and uterus in the female, forming the retrovesical or retrovaginal pouch.

Diagnostic Methods.

For the successful treatment of rectal diseases a systematic examination should be made in every case. On account of the close relation and the anatomic proximity of other pelvic organs, as the uterus, tubes, and ovaries in the female and the bladder, urethra, prostate, and seminal vesicles in the male, it is necessary to be able to differentiate between many affections the symptoms of which may reflexly simulate an abnormal condition of the rectum. It is not uncommon for a stricture of the urethra, an enlarged prostate, stone in the bladder, or a displacement of the uterus, for example, to produce a set of symptoms which point to the rectum as their seat. All the information possible should be first obtained from a careful history of the case and by a general physical examination; then a local examination is made to determine the cause of the symptoms complained of and the proper line of treatment to pursue.

The methods employed for such an examination are: (1) Inspection, (2) palpation, (3) instrumental examination, and (4) inflation of the bowel.

Preparation of the Patient.—Before beginning a systematic examination the rectum should be emptied of its contents by means of a cathartic given the night before or by an enema administered just before the examination is begun. In some cases, however, more useful information as to the usual condition of the rectum may be obtained by making a preliminary examination of the patient in just the condition he presents himself. The presence of blood, pus, or mucus will thus be revealed, of which there would often be no trace after a cleansing enema. If necessary, an enema may then be given and a more complete examination may be made later. The bladder should likewise be evacuated, and tight clothing, such as bands, belts, or corsets which tend to force the intestines into the pelvis, should be loosened.

Position of the Patient.—Four positions are employed for rectal examinations, each of which has its own advantages under special conditions. These are: (1) the Sims, (2) the lithotomy, (3) the knee-chest, and (4) the squatting posture.

The *Sims*, or left lateral position, is obtained by placing the patient upon the left side with the left side of the face, the left shoulder, and the left breast resting upon a flat pillow. The left arm lies behind the back and the thighs are well flexed upon the body with the right knee

drawn up nearer the body than the left. The buttocks lie near the edge of the table and are elevated upon a hard pillow (Fig. 501). This position will be found most useful for routine examinations, and probably will be found less objectionable to the patient than the lithotomy or knee-chest positions.

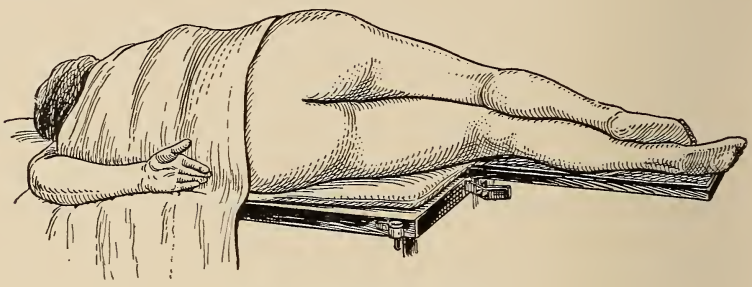


FIG. 501.—The Sims position.

The *lithotomy position* is secured by placing the patient flat on the back and flexing the thighs upon the abdomen and the legs upon the thighs. The buttocks, which are elevated upon a hard flat pillow, project over the end of the table (Fig 502). In very stout individuals

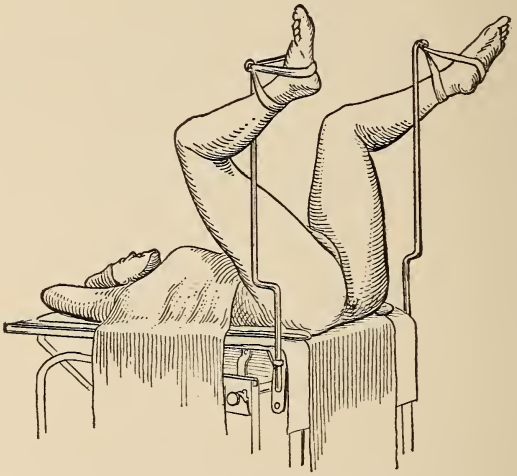


FIG. 502.—The lithotomy position.

this position will permit of a more satisfactory examination than will the Sims.

The *knee-chest position* is obtained by having the patient kneel upon a table with the thighs at right angles to the legs and with the body well flexed upon the thighs, the chest resting upon a pillow placed upon

the same level as the knees (Fig. 503). The knee-chest position favors displacement of the coils of intestine upward, thus allowing the rectum to be distended by the entrance of air upon the insertion of a speculum or proctoscope. The mucous membrane of the rectum, which in the dorsal position lies in folds, becomes expanded, and thus a more thorough inspection of all portions of the canal is possible.

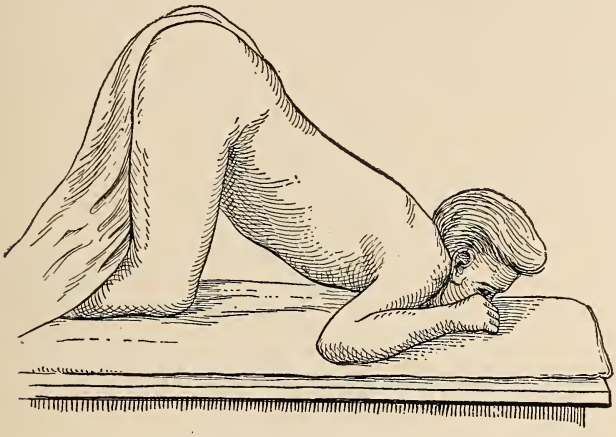


Fig. 503.—The knee-chest position.

The *squatting posture* is only suitable for digital examination. The patient assumes an attitude similar to that taken while at stool. Portions of the rectum may be thus palpated which in the Sims or the dorsal position would be out of reach of the examiner's finger. By a slight straining effort protrusions or moderate degrees of prolapse will be revealed.

INSPECTION.

The anus is first inspected. The presence of discharges from the rectum, excoriations, eczema, thickening of the epidermis, scars, ulcerations, fistulous openings, condylomata, the swelling of an abscess, and external hemorrhoids, are carefully looked for. Then, by separating the buttocks and placing the thumbs on either side of the anus and drawing it apart while the patient strains slightly, inspection of the anal canal for at least an inch (2.5 cm.) will be possible (Fig. 504). Slight degrees of prolapse, fissures, ulcers, hemorrhoids, and polypi or other growths may be readily demonstrated in this way.

PALPATION.

Palpation of the rectum may be performed by means of the finger or by the whole hand. With the index-finger one may examine the anus, the anal canal, and the ampulla of the rectum. The first 4 inches (10 cm.) of the rectum may be thus explored.

Introduction of the whole hand into the rectum, as advocated by Simon, for the purpose of palpation of portions of the canal out of reach of the finger, may be practised if the hand is moderately small. Tuttle states that a hand requiring a kid glove larger than 7 3/4 should never be introduced into the rectum except in a life or death emergency.

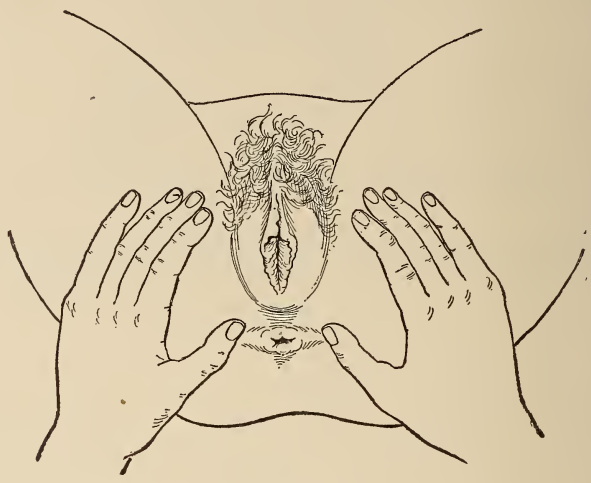


FIG. 504.—Inspection of the anus. (Ashton.)

Manual palpation is rarely required, being only necessary for examining tumors high up that cannot be inspected by means of a speculum or a proctoscope. In addition, it is a serious procedure, as there is danger of rupture or undue distention of the bowel in careless hands.

Anesthesia.—General anesthesia will be required for palpation by the whole hand, as complete dilatation of the rectum is essential.

Technic.—1. *By the Finger.*—No anesthesia will be required. The direction of the rectum, which is at first slightly forward from the anus, then back into the hollow of the sacrum, then to the right, and finally to the left toward the sigmoid flexure, should be kept clearly in mind. The index-finger of the right hand is covered with a rubber finger cot. If, however, it is desired to preserve the tactile sense of the finger, a covering is dispensed with, in which case soap should be forced under the nail. The finger is well lubricated with sterile vaselin or with one

of the preparations of Iceland moss made for the purpose and is then introduced slowly and with a rotary motion, the patient being requested to strain gently to facilitate its passage through the sphincter. Roughness in inserting the finger or disregard of the natural direction of the canal will be liable to cause spasm of the sphincter and give the patient such pain that a thorough examination will be impossible.

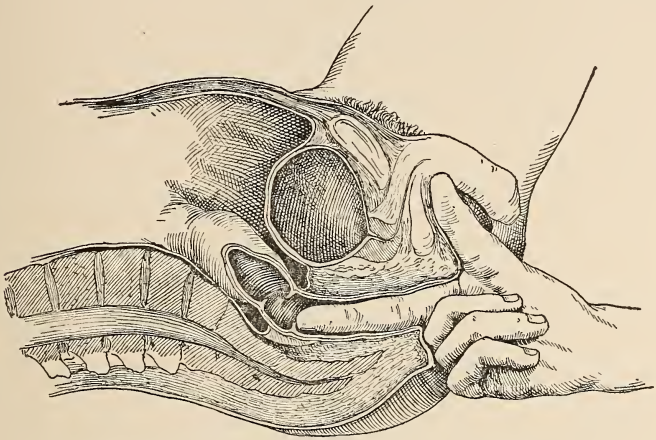


FIG. 505.—Palpation of the rectum. (Gant.)

As the finger passes through the anal canal the condition of the sphincter should be noted, the examiner observing whether it is close, rigid, and resisting, or loose and patulous. When the internal sphincter has been passed, the finger is swept lightly over the mucous membrane, palpating the rectal wall in all directions. The size and sensitiveness of the rectum is thus ascertained. The examining finger will readily detect the presence of impacted feces, polypi, large hemorrhoids, malignant growths, ulcerations, fissures, and strictures if a systematic examination is made. In the male, enlargement, induration, degrees of sensitiveness, or softness of the prostate should be carefully noted, and likewise information regarding the condition of the seminal vesicles and bladder should be obtained. A vesical calculus may frequently be discovered by such examination. In the female, the uterus, tubes, ovaries, and broad ligaments are carefully examined for displacements or signs of inflammation. Finally, the coccyx should not be overlooked, as this bone may be responsible for considerable rectal disturbance.

If pus, blood, or mucus be present in the bowel there will be an escape of the material from the anus when the finger is withdrawn or

the finger will come away coated. In all cases it is important to note the odor of the examining finger upon its withdrawal. The foul odor of cancer is characteristic and will not be mistaken for anything else once it is recognized.

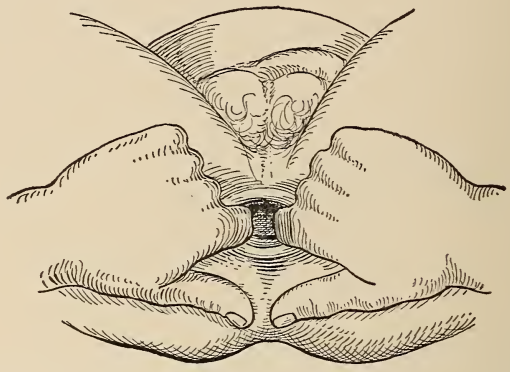


Fig. 506.—Method of dilating the anus by means of one finger of each hand.

2. *By the Whole Hand.*—Stretching of the sphincters is commenced by introducing into the anus the two forefingers with the palmar surfaces out, and separating them slowly and gently in all directions, care being taken to avoid injury to the mucous membrane if possible (Fig. 506). As soon as a little dilatation has been secured, two and

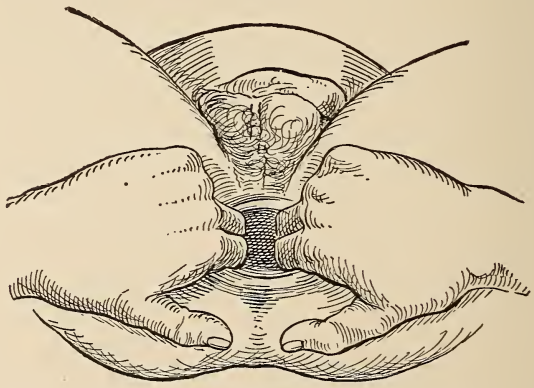


Fig. 507.—Method of dilating the anus by means of two fingers of each hand.

then three fingers of each hand may be introduced, carrying them to a point well above the internal sphincter. The fingers are then gradually separated until sufficient dilatation is obtained to allow the hand to pass (Fig. 507). The hand is then well lubricated and, with the fingers formed in the shape of a cone, it is gradually introduced past

the sphincter muscles until it enters the dilated ampulla. From this point on only two fingers should be used in palpation, and great care and gentleness are necessary to prevent injury, as the canal gradually narrows down.

EXAMINATION BY THE SPECULUM OR PROCTOSCOPE.

By the aid of suitable specula and reflected light, the whole inner surface of the rectum up to the sigmoid flexure may be inspected. The openings of glands and the condition of the valves and any alteration in color or unevenness of the surface of the mucous membrane are noted. Ulcers, polypi, new growths, malignant disease, strictures, the internal openings of fistulous tracts, hemorrhoids, and congestions or inflammation of the rectal mucosa may be distinguished by the experienced examiner.

Instruments.—The ordinary rectal specula are made in various shapes and styles, such as the Sims (Fig. 508), the bivalve, the duck-

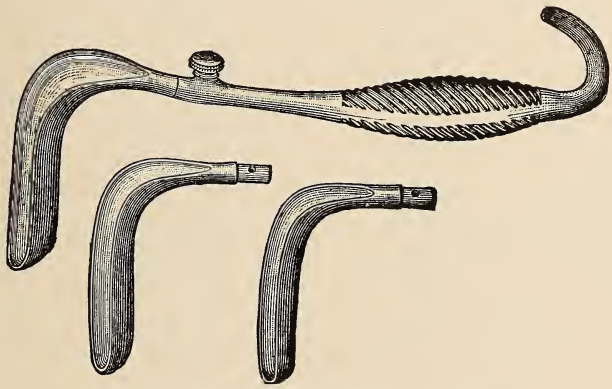


Fig. 508.—The Sims rectal speculum. (Hirst.)

bill (Fig. 509), the fenestrated-blade (Fig. 510), the conical, etc. These are all useful instruments for inspection of the lower 4 or 5 inches (10 to 12 cm.) of the bowel, but their usefulness is limited to that region.

For examination of points higher up Kelly has devised a set of tubular specula (Fig. 511) which permit a thorough inspection of the whole rectum and the sigmoid flexure. This set of instruments consists of: (1) a sphincteroscope, (2) a long and (3) a short proctoscope, and (4) a sigmoidoscope. The sphincteroscope is short and slightly conical; the diameter of the lower end of the tube is 1 inch (2.5 cm.)

and of the upper end 1 1/5 inches (3 cm.). The cylinder of the short proctoscope is 5 1/2 inches (14 cm.) long, and 7/8 inch (22 mm.) in diameter. The long proctoscope is 8 inches (20 cm.) long and of the same diameter as the short proctoscope, and the sigmoidoscope is of like diameter and 14 inches (35 cm.) long. Each speculum consists of a cylindrical metal tube, at the outer end of which is a funnel-shaped rim about 2 inches (5 cm.) in diameter to which a handle is attached. A blunt obturator is provided to facilitate the introduction of the instrument into the bowel. Illumination is secured from an electric

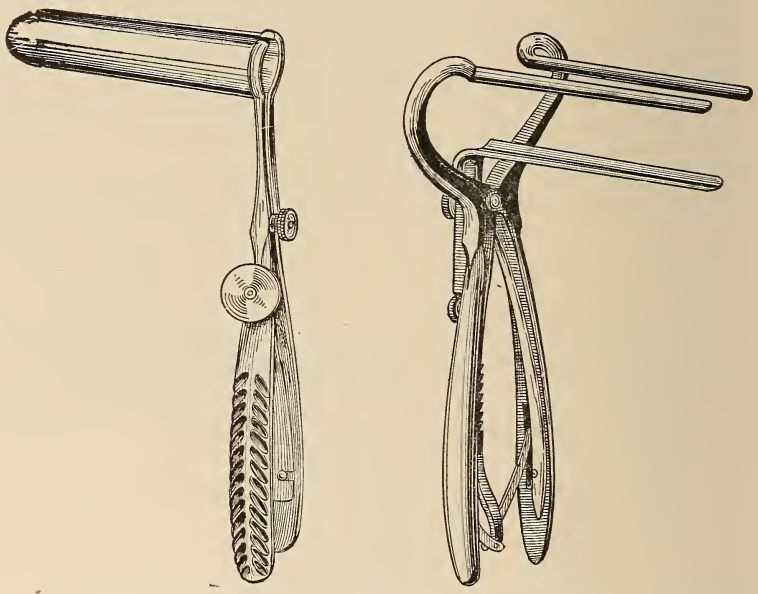


Fig. 509.—Duck-bill rectal speculum. Fig. 510.—Fenestrated-blade rectal speculum.

light held close to the sacrum, which is reflected by a head mirror into the speculum, or else an electric head light or the direct sunlight may be employed.

Murphy has modified Kelly's instrument in such a way that the specula telescope, the proctoscope fitting into the sphincteroscope, etc. This does away with the necessity of withdrawing and inserting a speculum through the anus each time a smaller size is used. The sphincteroscope is used first, and into this the next smaller size is passed without withdrawing the original instrument, until all have been introduced in succession.

The pneumatic proctoscope, such as Tuttle's modification of Law's instrument (Fig. 512) is not dependent upon atmospheric

pressure as a means of dilatation, this being accomplished by a special inflation apparatus connected with the instrument. Tuttle's procto-

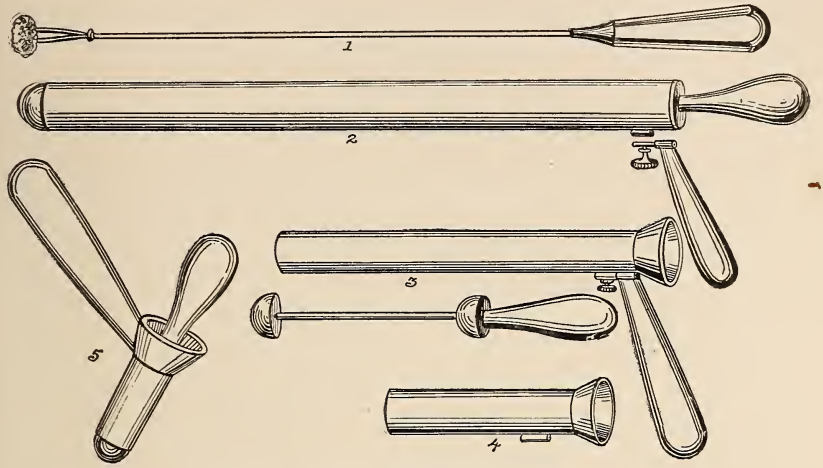


FIG. 511.—Kelly's set of tubular specula.
1, Swab and holder; 2, sigmoidoscope; 3, long proctoscope; 4, short proctoscope; 5, sphincteroscope.

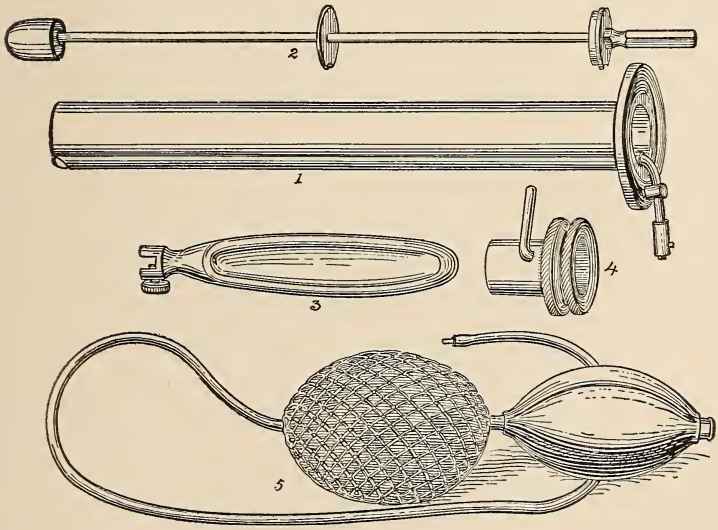


FIG. 512.—Tuttle's pneumatic proctoscope.
1, Proctoscope with obturator removed; 2, obturator; 3, handle; 4, air-tight plug with glass window; 5, inflating apparatus.

scope consists of a long cylinder, to the circumference of which is fitted a small metallic tube closed at its distal extremity by a flint-glass

bulb. An electric light fitted upon a long metallic stem is carried through the small accessory cylinder to the end of the speculum. An obturator fits into the distal end of the large cylinder to facilitate the introduction of the instrument. In addition, there is an air-tight-fitting plug containing either a plain glass window or a lens focused to the length of the instrument to be inserted in the proctoscope when the obturator is removed. This plug is in connection with an inflating apparatus. An adjustable handle is supplied with the instrument. These specula vary in length from 4 to 14 inches (10 to 35 cm.). Tuttle recommends a 4- and a 10-inch (10 and 25 cm.) tube for ordinary use. The light is furnished by a four or a six dry-cell battery. In using the specula and proctoscopes long dressing forceps and cotton balls with which to swab out the bowel will be required.

Asepsis.—The specula may be sterilized by boiling or by immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution. In case the latter is employed, the instrument should be rinsed off with alcohol or sterile water before use.

Position of the Patient.—In employing the ordinary proctoscope, the patient should be placed in the knee-chest position, so that the rectum will balloon up upon the entrance of air through the instrument. When using the pneumatic proctoscope, which does not depend upon atmospheric pressure for inflation, the Sims position may be employed instead of the knee-chest, if desired.

Anesthesia.—An anesthetic is not required, as a rule, unless the patient is extremely hyperesthetic.

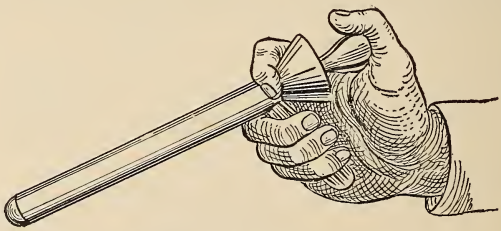


Fig. 513.—Method of holding the proctoscope.

Technic.—1. *With the Kelly Instrument.*—The instrument should always be warmed and lubricated with sterile vaselin before its introduction. In using the sphincteroscope the handle of the instrument is grasped in the right hand with the right thumb pressing against the obturator, as shown in Fig. 513. The buttocks are then drawn apart and, with the end of the obturator held against the anal orifice, the patient strains slightly and the speculum is slowly pushed into the bowel in a direction downward and forward until the funnel-

shaped rim prevents its further progress. The obturator is then removed, allowing air to pass in and distend the bowel. The light is reflected into the instrument in such a way as to thoroughly illumi-

FIG. 514.—Proctoscopy. First step, method of inserting the instrument.

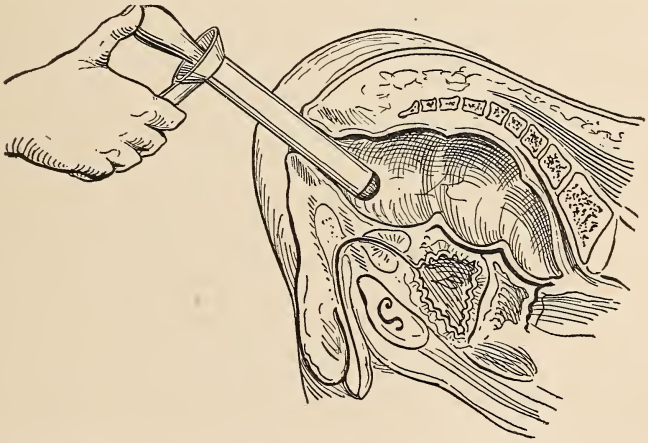


FIG. 515.—Proctoscopy. Second step, showing the direction of the instrument in passing through the anus.

nate the interior, and, as the instrument is slowly withdrawn, the whole of the anal canal is carefully inspected.

The proctoscope is inserted in precisely the same manner, first pushing the instrument in a direction downward and forward (Fig.

515) and then upward toward the sacral hollow (Fig. 516). As soon as the tube enters the ampulla, the obturator should be withdrawn allowing air to enter and expand the bowel. The light is then thrown into the instrument and the ampulla is inspected. From this point the

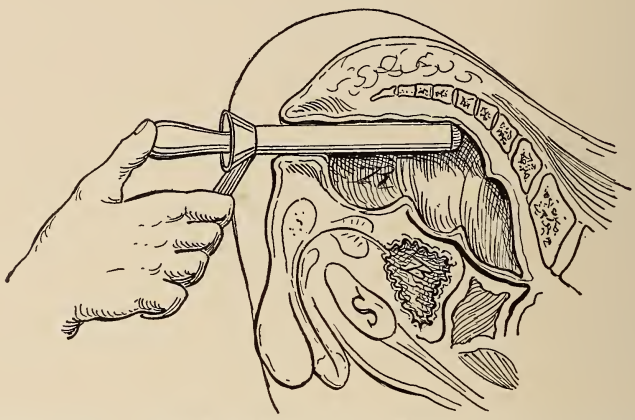


FIG. 516.—Proctoscopy. Third step, showing the direction of the instrument in entering the ampulla.

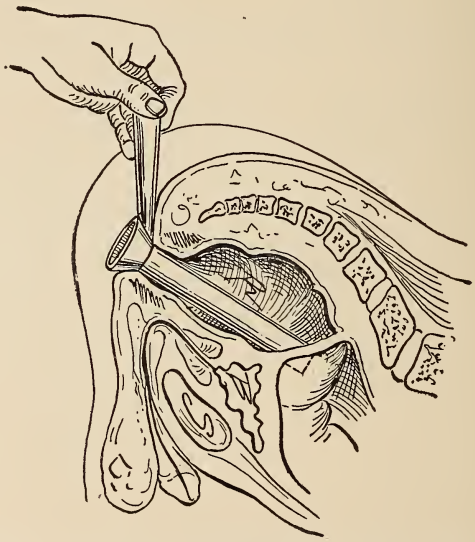


FIG. 517.—Proctoscopy. Fourth step, showing the instrument inserted to its full extent

instrument is advanced past the valves entirely *by sight*. Some difficulty may be experienced in following the direction of the canal from a valve or fold of mucous membrane occluding the end of the instrument. In such a case the distal end of the instrument should be gently

moved from side to side until the opening of the canal is found. In this manner the whole interior of the rectum may be inspected. As the instrument is withdrawn, the condition and character of the mucous membrane as it falls over the end of the instrument is noted (Fig. 518).

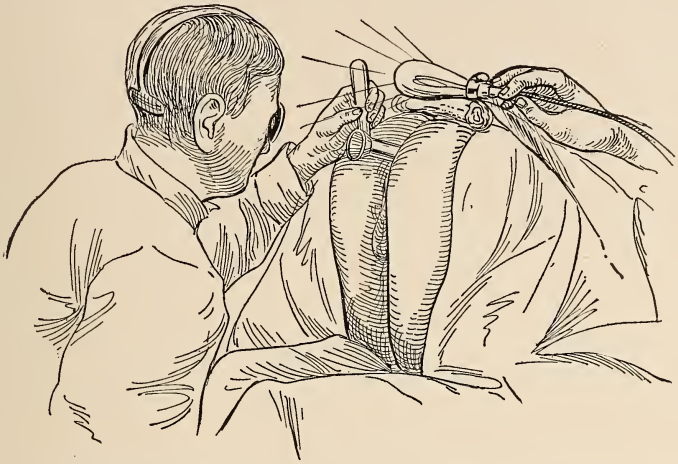


FIG. 518.—Showing the method of performing proctoscopy by the aid of a head mirror and an electric light.

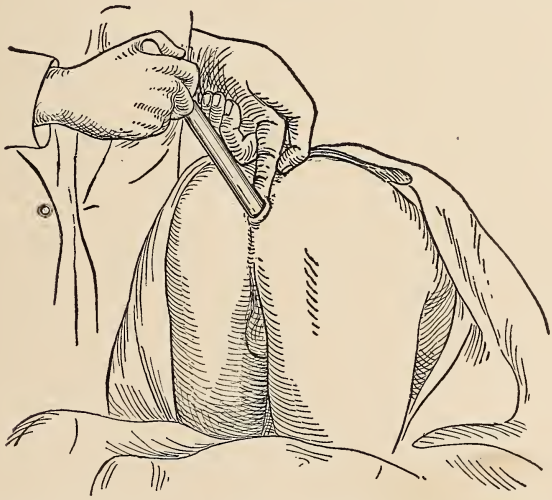


FIG. 519.—Showing the method of inserting Tuttle's instrument with the finger in the rectum and the auxiliary tube pressing against it.

In introducing the sigmoidoscope it is to be remembered that the upper portion of the canal gradually turns to the left, hence the point of the instrument is turned in that direction as it slowly ascends the bowel.

2. *With Tuttle's Proctoscope.*—The proctoscope, warmed and well lubricated, is introduced in much the same manner as is Kelly's instrument. To avoid causing the patient any discomfort from the presence of the auxiliary tube, however, it is well to insert the index-finger of the left hand into the bowel first and then to introduce the instrument with the end of the auxiliary tube pressed against the finger (Fig. 519); as the tube enters the bowel the finger is withdrawn. When the internal sphincter has been passed, the obturator is withdrawn and the plug containing the glass lens is substituted. This makes the instrument air-tight. Pressure upon the bulb of the inflating apparatus distends and straightens out the canal as the instrument is advanced. Should the lamp become obscured by feces or mucus, the plug is removed from the instrument and, without removing the instrument, the glass is wiped off with a cotton wipe held in long dressing forceps. At the completion of the examination the cap at the end of the tube is withdrawn and the air is allowed to escape from the bowel before the instrument is removed.

EXAMINATION BY SOUNDS AND BOUGIES.

The employment of the rectal sound or bougie for the diagnosis of stricture has been superseded to a large extent by the use of the proctoscope. The bougie, furthermore, is not a very reliable instrument, as strictures that do not exist may be imagined to be present from the point of the instrument catching in the folds of mucous membrane or in a diverticulum, or from being arrested by fecal matter, the promontory of the sacrum, a retroverted uterus, or an enlarged prostate. Again, the instrument may bend or curve upon itself.

Instruments.—There are many varieties of sounds and bougies made for diagnostic purposes, but the only instrument that should be employed is a soft-rubber one, the Wales bougie (Fig. 520) being a type. Metal or hard-rubber sounds are dangerous, even in the hands of an expert, unless they are inserted by the aid of a proctoscope, as they may easily be pushed through the rectal wall into the peritoneal cavity, especially if the rectum is weakened by some pathological condition. The Wales bougie is made of soft rubber in different sizes, and in length measures about 12 to 14 inches (30 to 35 cm.). It is perforated by a canal running through its center for the purpose of allowing fluid to be injected into the bowel to aid in its passage. In using this instrument a Davidson syringe should be provided.

Technic.—The bougie, well lubricated, is gently inserted into the bowel until its further progress is impeded by some obstruction. The Davidson syringe is then attached and a stream of warm water or oil is forced through the instrument for the purpose of dislodging any fecal matter or folds of mucous membrane that may be interfering with

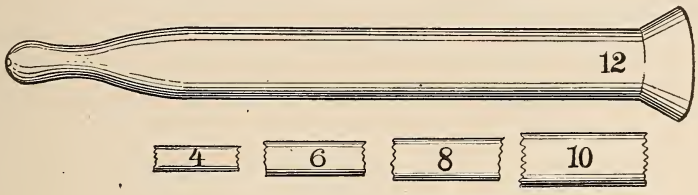


FIG. 520.—Wales' bougies.

its passage. In this way the whole length of the bowel may be explored without danger, and the instrument may be passed into the sigmoid provided no stricture exists.

EXAMINATION BY THE BOUGIE À BOULE.

The rectal bougie à boule is made use of in diagnosis to determine the size and length of a stricture.

Instruments.—The bougie à boule consists of a flexible wire or rubber shaft with a handle to the extremity of which acorn-tips of various sizes may be screwed (Fig. 521). The bougie à boule is used

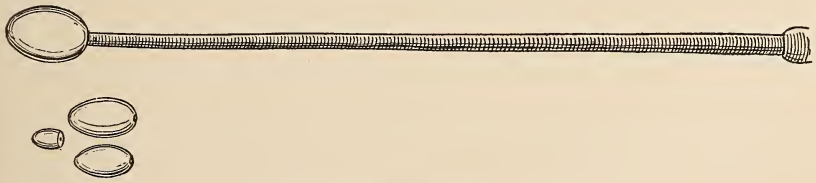


FIG. 521.—Rectal bougie à boule.

to best advantage in connection with a cylindrical speculum or a proctoscope.

Technic.—A speculum is introduced into the anus and is carried up to the seat of the stricture so that a clear view of its opening may be secured. The examiner begins by selecting a large bougie and passing it through the speculum to the opening in the stricture (Fig. 522). If it is found to be too large to enter the stricture, smaller instru-

ments are selected until one is found that will just pass through the contracture. This is inserted entirely through the stricture, using gentleness only in manipulation, and as it is withdrawn its base catches

FIG. 522.

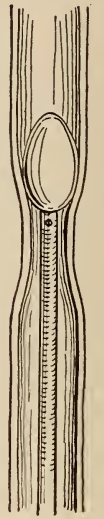


FIG. 523.

FIG. 522.—Method of estimating the length of a rectal stricture, the bougie à boule at the face of the stricture.

FIG. 523.—Method of estimating the length of a rectal stricture. The bougie à boule is withdrawn until its base is arrested at the distal end of the stricture.

the distal opening of the stricture (Fig. 523). From this examination the exact length and size of the contracture may be readily ascertained.

EXAMINATION BY THE PROBE.

Probing has but little utility in the diagnosis of rectal diseases except as a means of determining the situation and course of a recto-vaginal or ischiorectal fistula.

FIG. 524.—Rectal probe.

Instruments.—A silver probe 8 or 10 inches (20 to 25 cm.) long with a flat handle is employed (Fig. 524). The probe should be flexible that it may be bent in any direction if desired. When examining

for a recto-vaginal fistula a Sims speculum will be required in addition to expose the fistulous opening in the vagina.

Technic.—The index-finger of the left hand, well lubricated, is first introduced into the rectum. The probe, grasped in the right hand, is then passed through the external opening in the supposed direction of the fistulous tract. The tract of the sinus is thus slowly explored, removing the probe and bending it so as to alter its shape to correspond with the direction of the sinus if necessary. The internal finger at once recognizes the tip of the probe as it enters the rectum (Fig. 525).

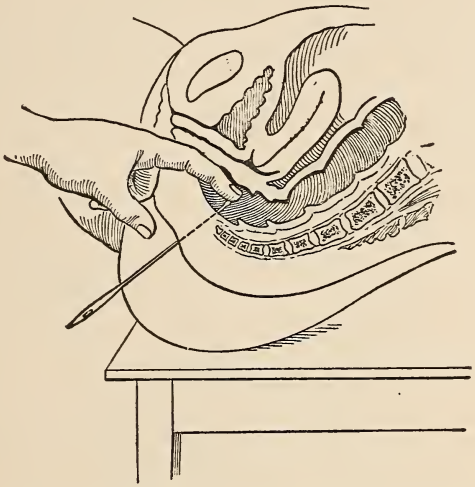


Fig. 525.—Showing the method of probing an ischiorectal fistula. (Ashton.)

INFLATION OF THE COLON.

This procedure is performed both as a diagnostic and as a therapeutic measure (for the latter see page 517). The bowel may be inflated either by means of air or fluids. For diagnostic purposes, however, air is preferable, as there is thus produced a contrast on percussion between the tympany of the air-distended bowel and the flatness of a tumor. It has the disadvantage, however, that the amount injected cannot be measured as can fluids, and consequently the degree of distention is not so well regulated.

The colon may be distended as far as the cecum, provided there be no obstruction and the inflation be slowly and carefully performed. When thus distended, the bowel is raised from the surrounding parts and is caused to stand out against the abdominal wall so that it may be readily mapped out by palpation and by percussion, and its size, shape,

position, and mobility may be determined. It thus also becomes possible to locate the seat of a stricture or an obstruction by noting the limits of the distended area—the part below the seat of stenosis becomes prominent, while the portion of the bowel above will be but slightly distended or not at all so, depending upon the degree of occlusion. Under inflation, tumors of the large bowel are made more prominent and it is frequently possible to recognize that a growth is located in or is in connection with the colon by tracing the distended bowel directly into the tumor mass. Finally, inflation is also of great aid in determining the probable seat of other abdominal tumors; the distention of the bowel causes a change in the position of the tumor, displacing it in the direction of the normal position of the organ from which it takes origin, so that tympany is obtained where there was originally dulness; for example, a tumor of the stomach is pushed upward; a tumor of the gall-bladder and liver is pushed upward and forward; a tumor of the

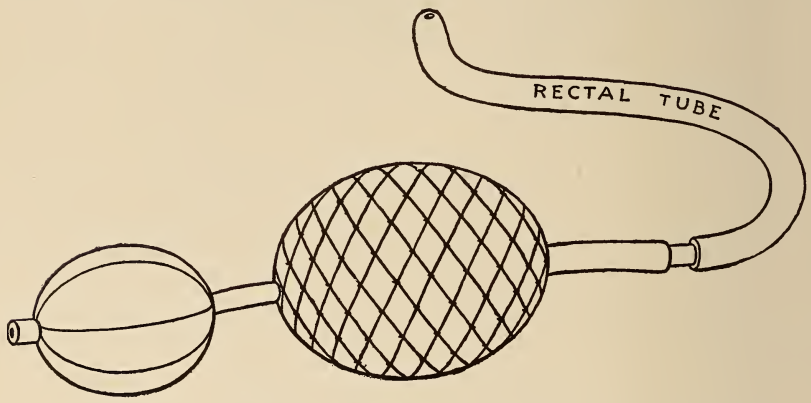


FIG. 526.—Rectal tube and cautery bulb for inflating the colon. (Eisendrath.)

pancreas becomes less noticeable; a tumor of the kidney is pushed upward toward the normal position of the kidney and lies behind the distended colon; a tumor of the spleen will lie in front of the colon and the growth will become more readily palpable from being pushed forward, etc., etc.

Apparatus.—The injection of fluids is effected by means of a fountain syringe or a graduated glass irrigating jar as a reservoir, and a rectal tube attached to the reservoir by about 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.) in diameter.

For the injection of air a special inflation apparatus may be employed, but a rectal tube attached to a Davidson syringe, cautery bulb (Fig. 526), hand bellows, or bicycle pump will answer equally well. The

pumping apparatus may be dispensed with if only oxygen or carbonic gas are used. In the case of the former the rectal tube is simply attached to the oxygen tank (Fig. 527), while, if the latter gas be employed, the tube is attached to a syphon of carbonic, and the latter is inverted so that the gas escapes without the water following.

Media for Inflation.—Of fluids, warm normal salt solution (dr. i (3.9 gm.) of salt to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of water) is best. Air, oxygen, or carbonic acid gas may be used when gaseous distention is desired.

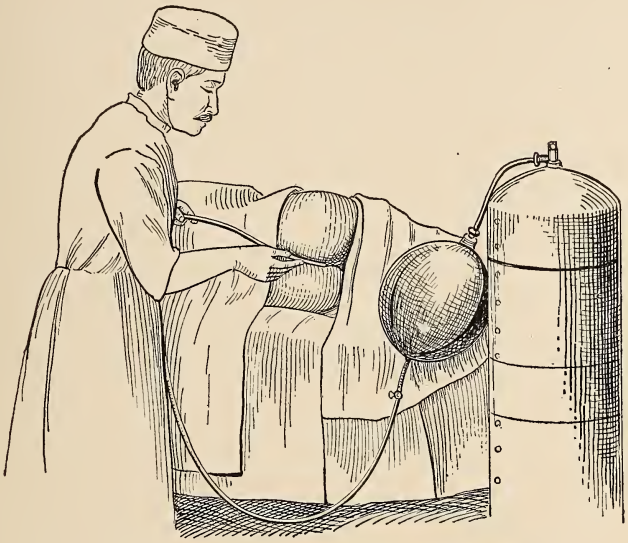


FIG. 527.—Inflation of the colon with oxygen. (After Gant.)

Amount Injected.—When inflating with gas there is no way to determine accurately the amount of gas injected, and the patient's sensations and the degree of distention of the bowel must be the guide. Never inject sufficient to cause pain, and care must be taken not to endanger the gut.

As much as 3 quarts (3 liters) of fluid may be injected with safety.

Rapidity.—Fluid or gas should be injected slowly and steadily; rapid distention of the bowel is to be avoided. From fifteen minutes to half an hour should be consumed in performing the operation. If the reservoir be not elevated above 3 feet (90 cm.), the fluid will not enter the bowel too rapidly.

Position of Patient.—The tube may be inserted with the patient upon his side, but as soon as the inflation is begun the dorsal position should be assumed.

Technic.—If there is any accumulation of fecal matter in the bowels a simple enema should be given and an evacuation produced before attempting the operation. The rectal tube is then well lubricated with vaselin and is inserted 4 or 5 inches (10 to 12 cm.) within the rectum. If fluid is employed, the reservoir is then elevated between 2 and 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) and the solution is allowed to distend the bowel slowly, cotton being tightly packed about the anus and the buttocks being held in close apposition to prevent leakage. As the rectum becomes distended there will be some spasm and an almost irresistible desire on the part of the patient to expel the fluid, but if the flow be temporarily stopped, or the reservoir lowered, and time be given for the fluid to pass upward, this feeling soon passes off and the inflation may be then continued. When the colon has been sufficiently distended and the purposes of the examination are accomplished, the fluid is allowed to escape from the bowel through the tube.

The technic of introducing gas is practically identical with the above, great care being taken, however, not to force the gas in too rapidly or in excess, and at the completion of the examination to draw off as much of it as possible, so as to avoid unpleasant distention. Its escape may be aided by inserting two fingers into the rectum and holding the anus open.

Therapeutic Measures.

ENEMATA AND ENTEROCLYSIS.

Hydrotherapy of the lower bowel may be carried out by means of enemata or by enteroclysis. These two measures are often unnecessarily confused and, while in general they are employed for the relief of much the same conditions, yet in practical application they are quite distinct. By an enema is understood the introduction into the bowel of clysters of fluid to be retained some little time at least. The quantity of fluid so injected is usually small in amount, rarely exceeding 1 or 2 pints (473.11 to 946 c.c.). Enteroclysis, on the other hand, is an irrigation of the lower bowel, the fluid returning almost as rapidly as it is introduced. In this procedure, large quantities of fluid are made use of—frequently several gallons at an irrigation. The enema and the irrigation may both be administered either low or high, according to whether the fluid is introduced a few inches up the rectum or high in the colon.

Enemata.—Enemata may be of several kinds, according to the purpose for which they are employed. They may be designed simply

to secure an action of the bowels in ordinary constipation or to unload the bowel of long-standing fecal accumulations or impactions and at the same time relieve the accompanying tympanites. These are known as purgative enemata. Such injections owe their action to the stimulating effects upon intestinal peristalsis and to the softening produced in the hardened fecal matter. In the treatment of constipation, however, the use of enemata should be restricted as much as possible; they should not be advised for long-continued use, as they gradually lose their potency, and constantly increasing quantities are necessary to produce an effect. For the local effects in colitis, dysentery, catarrhal and ulcerative conditions of the rectum and colon, small enemata of antiseptic, astringent, or sedative solutions to be retained some little time are administered after each movement or following a cleansing irrigation. While used mainly for purgative and cleansing effects, enemata have other valuable uses in therapeutics. Rectal injections of saline solution are made use of in the treatment of shock, hemorrhage, sepsis, etc. (see Saline Infusions, p. 508). Rectal enemata are likewise employed as a means of introducing fluids and nutriment into the bowel (see Rectal Feeding, p. 514) and for the administration of drugs which affect the general system after absorption.

In employing the rectum as an avenue for the administration of drugs, however, certain facts are to be kept in mind. The drug should always be given in such a state that the active principle is in an aqueous solution or else is capable of being dissolved in the fluids of the rectum. It should also be remembered that, while the absorption power of the rectum may be great, drugs are taken up but slowly and if a rapid effect is desired, this method should not be employed. As a rule, unless the drug is very powerful and is capable of being rapidly absorbed, the dose is twice the amount given by mouth.

Apparatus.—The simpler the apparatus, provided it is efficient, the better. A fountain syringe or a glass irrigating jar, capable of holding a quart (946 c.c.) of solution, will be required as a reservoir, but in an emergency a large funnel will answer. A rubber tubing about 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.) in diameter and at least 6 feet (180 cm.) long is connected with the outlet of the reservoir, and to the free end an appropriate nozzle is attached (Fig. 528). For low enemata the ordinary hard-rubber rectal nozzle provided with every douche-bag will answer, but if the injection is to be given high up in the bowel a flexible-rubber rectal tube about 20 inches (50 cm.) long will be more convenient. The tube should be smooth and from 3/8 to 1/2 inch

(9 to 12 mm.) in diameter. A very simple apparatus consists of a long colon tube and a funnel (Fig. 529).

Rectal tubes are made with the openings at the side, or with one opening at the end (Fig. 530). The latter are better, as the fluid may

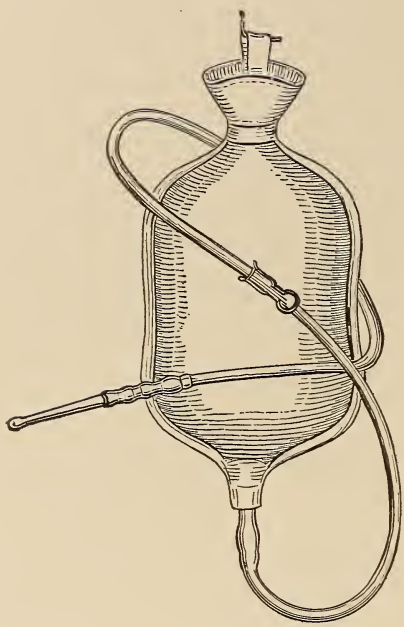


FIG. 528.—Fountain syringe and nozzle for giving a low enema.

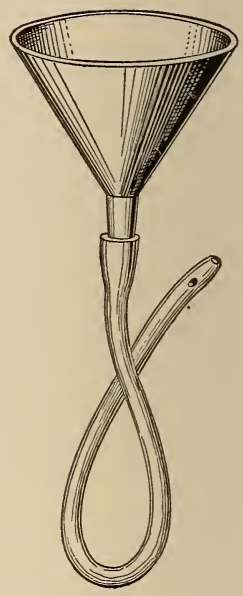


FIG. 529.—Colon tube and funnel.

be injected directly through the tube for the purpose of dislodging any feces or folds of mucous membrane that may obstruct the passage of the tube. In addition, a bed-pan or a douche-pan should be provided.

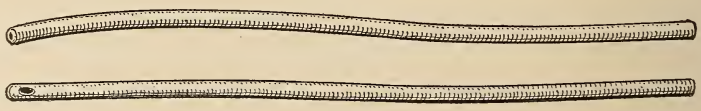


FIG. 530.—Rectal tubes.

Formulary.—For simple cleansing purposes or to produce an evacuation in mild cases of costiveness an enema consisting of normal salt solution (dr. 1 (3.9 gm.) of salt to 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) of warm water) or the soap-suds enema, made by adding to 1 quart (946 c.c.)

of hot water sufficient castile soap scrapings to make suds, may be used. The continued use of the latter is not advisable, however, as some irritation may be caused by the lye which is apt to result in proctitis or skin eruptions.

In habitual constipation the injection of from 2 to 6 ounces (59 to 178 c.c.) of warm sweet oil into the bowel or the use of the flax-seed enema will often give good results. The latter is prepared by adding 1 ounce (31.10 gm.) of flax-seed to 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) of cold water and then boiling the mixture for ten minutes. The resulting mucilaginous mixture is strained and injected while warm. Another good enema consists of equal parts of milk and molasses. When a more profound effect is desired there are a number of drugs that may be incorporated in the enema. Of these may be mentioned olive oil, castor oil, glycerin, ox gall, turpentine, magnesium sulphate, Carlsbad salt, etc. The following combinations of the above will be found useful:

℞	Olive oil or castor oil,	oz. ii (59.2 c.c.)
	Warm soapy water,	oz. iv (118.4 c.c.)
℞	Glycerin,	oz. i (30 c.c.)
	Olive oil,	oz. iii (89 c.c.)
	Warm soapy water,	oz. iv (118.4 c.c.)
℞	Ox gall,	dr. ii (7.8 gm.)
	Warm water,	O i (473.11 c.c.)
℞	Ox gall,	dr. ii (7.8 gm.)
	Glycerin,	oz. iv (118.4 c.c.)
	Warm water,	O i (473.11 c.c.)
℞	Magnesium sulphate,	oz. i (31.10 gm.)
	Glycerin,	oz. ii (59.2 c.c.)
	Warm water,	oz. iii (89 c.c.)
℞	White of egg (beaten),	
	Oil of turpentine,	dr. i (3.75 c.c.)
	Olive oil,	oz. i (30 c.c.)
	Warm water,	O i (473.11 c.c.)
℞	Magnesium sulphate,	oz. ii (62.2 gm.)
	Oil of turpentine,	dr. ii (7.50 c.c.)
	Glycerin,	oz. ii (59.2 c.c.)
	Warm water,	oz. iv (118.4 c.c.)

For the relief of tympanites a turpentine enema or an enema consisting of 3 ounces (89 c.c.) of milk of asafetida may be used. For irritability of the rectum the use of a small flaxseed enema or the

starch-water enema, to which 10 to 20 ♏ (0.6 to 1.25 c.c.) of laudanum are added, will often give great relief. The starch-water enema is prepared by adding to an ounce (31.10 gm.) of starch sufficient cold water to form a thick paste; enough boiling water is then added to dilute this mixture to the consistency of mucilage.

Temperature.—The enema should be given warm—at a temperature of about 100° F.—unless contraindicated.

Rapidity of Flow.—The solution should always be injected slowly to avoid discomfort and spasm from a sudden distention of the bowel. The reservoir is consequently elevated about 2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) above the patient.

Quantity.—To stimulate peristalsis and produce an evacuation of the bowels a bulk of liquid sufficiently large to distend the walls of the intestine should be injected. For this purpose between 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) and 1 quart (946 c.c.) of fluid is made use of at one injection. Enemata to be permanently retained for absorption, such as those containing drugs or nutriment, should be small in amount, as a rule containing only 2 or 3 ounces (59 to 89 c.c.) of fluid.

Position of the Patient.—The dorsal, the Sims, or the knee-chest position may be utilized. In the case of the two former the hips should be elevated upon a hard pillow; especially is this necessary if the enema is to be injected high into the bowel. Infants can be best controlled when placed upon the attendant's lap, lying upon the back.

Technic.—The tube is first well lubricated with vaselin, and any air is expelled. The left hand then separates the buttocks, and, while the patient strains slightly to relax the sphincter, the tube is inserted into the anus, guided by the right hand in which it is held at a distance of about 2 inches (5 cm.) from its extremity, the operator using a slight boring motion, and bearing in mind that the direction of the anal canal with the patient recumbent is upward and slightly forward. Having traversed the anal canal, the tube enters the rectum proper, and is then slowly advanced in an upward and slightly backward direction. From this point some difficulty may be met with in passing the tube, as it often doubles upon itself from the point's catching in a fold of mucous membrane or one of the valves or from being obstructed by feces. Withdrawing the tube slightly and advancing it will often suffice to free it; in other cases allowing the fluid to flow as the tube is advanced displaces or removes any obstruction and at the same time causes the tube to straighten out. In this manner the tube may be passed into the colon, if desired, without causing the patient any great discomfort, provided gentleness and no force be employed.

When the tube is introduced to the desired height, the reservoir is elevated a distance of 2 or 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.), and its contents are allowed to enter the bowel slowly (Fig. 531). The patient is apt to complain of fulness in the rectum as the fluid enters and distends it, but, by temporarily stopping the flow, this feeling soon passes off, and, as the rectum becomes tolerant to the pressure, more fluid can be injected. When the desired amount has been introduced, the flow is shut off by pinching the tube, which is then withdrawn. The patient is directed to hold the enema as long as possible before using the bedpan, certainly for five or ten minutes at least.

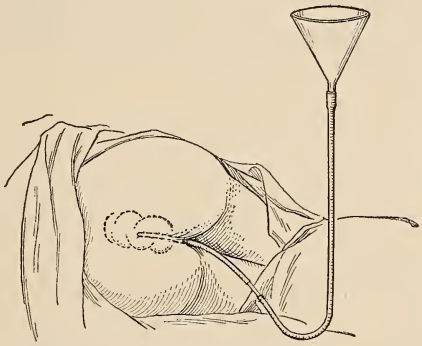


FIG. 531.—Method of giving a low enema. (Macfarlane.)

Enteroclysis.—Like enemata, irrigations are used mainly for cleansing purposes, to remove putrefying material or toxins from the bowels, and to bring medicated fluids into contact with diseased areas of mucous membrane. Large irrigations are not advised, however, in the treatment of habitual constipation; the use of small enemata is just as efficacious, and there is less danger of producing atony of the bowel than where it is continually overloaded and distended with large quantities of fluid. In the treatment of intestinal toxemia by enteroclysis, the bowels are thoroughly cleansed and absorption of the toxins from the decomposing contents is prevented. At the same time, more or less fluid is absorbed; the activity of the skin, kidneys, and liver is consequently stimulated and general absorption and autointoxication are greatly lessened. For the same reasons enteroclysis has a wide field of usefulness in the treatment of renal insufficiency, uremia, toxemia, general septic conditions, etc., producing marked diuresis, and not only diluting the toxins in circulation, but favoring their elimination.

Enteroclysis with hot normal salt solution, through the stimulating effect on the circulation and the elevation of bodily temperature,

produces marked and beneficial results in shock due to whatever cause (see Saline Rectal Infusions, page 508).

In proctitis and in catarrhal, dysenteric, and ulcerative conditions of the large bowel irrigations are employed for cleansing purposes, removing foreign substances, mucus, and pus, and thus rendering bacteria less active; they also serve as a means of bringing medicinal agents in contact wi'h the diseased surfaces. For the local effect upon diseases of the rectum or adjacent organs irrigations are used either hot or cold; for example, in the treatment of internal hemorrhoids or hemorrhage from ulcers situated in the rectum or lower bowel. Such irrigations are likewise employed in genitourinary and gynecological practice for the treatment of congestion and inflammation located in the bladder, prostate, and deep urethra, or the uterus and its appendages.

Apparatus.—The reservoir for the solution may be either a quart-glass irrigating jar or a fountain syringe, attached to which is about 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.)

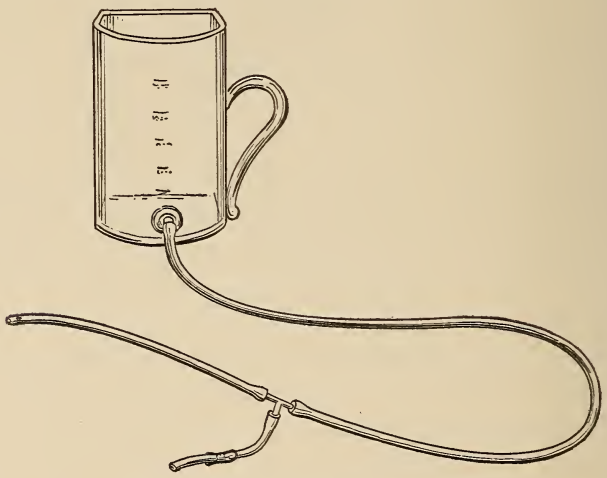


Fig. 532.—Apparatus for enteroclysis.

in diameter. Irrigating tubes come in two styles: a single-flow tube, in which the fluid enters and escapes through the same tube, and a double-current tube, in which the inflow enters and the outflow escapes through different compartments.

In irrigating with a single tube, it will prove most satisfactory to use a colon tube about 20 inches (50 cm.) long and 3/8 to 1/2 inch (9 to 12 mm.) in diameter, with the opening at the end. With this form of tube fluid may be deposited high in the colon or low in

the rectum at will. For infants, a catheter, 16 to 18 French, may be used. The irrigating tube is connected to the end of the rubber tubing of the irrigator by a T-shaped glass tube, to the long arm of which is attached a short piece of rubber tubing closed by a clip (Fig. 532). The solution is passed into the bowel with this clip closed, and when it is to be drawn off the inflow of solution is temporarily stopped by pinching the tubing between the glass connection and the irrigator, the clip is opened, and the fluid returns through the same tube and escapes through the long arm of the T-tube into a waste pail

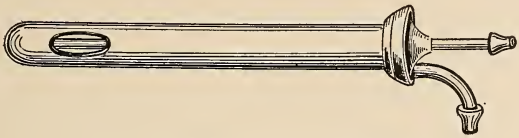


FIG. 533.—Kemp's return-flow irrigator.

ready for that purpose. The same thing may be very simply accomplished with a long colon tube and a funnel (see Fig. 529). The solution is forced in through the funnel, and, when sufficient has entered the bowel, the funnel is depressed and the fluid allowed to escape.

With a double-flow tube irrigations may be carried out far more conveniently, especially when several gallons of fluid are used at each irrigation. A very efficient double-flow apparatus, especially for high irrigating, may be improvised by passing a moderate-sized single-flow tube high into the bowel, alongside of which is inserted a second tube

FIG. 534.—Tuttle's return-flow irrigator.

of larger caliber to carry off the return flow. There are any number of excellent double-flow irrigators on the market, of which Bodenhamer's, Kemp's (Fig. 533), or Tuttle's tubes are satisfactory models. These instruments are made of hard rubber so that they may be readily sterilized. Tuttle's irrigator (Fig. 534) consists of a cylinder enclosing a smaller tube which opens at the end of the irrigator. This smaller tube conducts the fluid into the bowel. The outside cylinder has numerous openings in its sides to carry off the outflow. It ends in a discharge tube to which a long piece of rubber is attached to carry off the waste.

A bath-thermometer, a douche-pan or a bedpan, a slop-pail, and rubber sheeting to protect the bed complete the necessary equipment.

Solutions for Irrigation.—In the great majority of cases, unless a specific action is required from direct contact of remedies with the surface of the intestine, normal salt solution (dr. 1 (3.9 gm.) of salt to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of warm water) is used. For cleansing purposes and to aid in the expulsion of flatus, 5 to 15 ♏ (0.3 to 0.92 c.c.) of oleum cinnamomi or oleum menthæ piperitæ may be added to each pint of solution.

The following solutions will be found useful in catarrhal or ulcerative conditions of the lower bowel, according as to whether a soothing, antiseptic, stimulating, or astringent action is desired: aqueous extract of krameria, 1 to 20; fluid extract of hydrastis, 1 to 50; fluid extract of hamamelis, 1 to 50; boric acid, 1 to 20; hydrogen peroxid, 1 to 10; thymol, 1 to 50; carbolic acid, 1 to 500; bichlorid of mercury, 1 to 10,000; permanganate of potash, 1 to 500; salicylic acid, 1 to 500; quinin, 1 to 1000; argyrol, 1 to 1000; tannic acid, 1 to 500; silver nitrate, 1 to 2000, etc. In using the more powerful and poisonous drugs, such as carbolic acid and bichlorid of mercury, for instance, any excess of solution remaining in the bowel at the completion of the irrigation should be drained off before withdrawing the tube.

Temperature.—This will depend upon the condition for which the irrigation is employed and upon the action desired. For simple cleansing purposes and in the treatment of colitis and dysentery the irrigation should enter the bowel at a temperature of 100° to 105° F. Hot irrigations (110° to 115° F.) are indicated when the stimulating action of heat is desired, or for the diuretic effect and to increase the eliminative action of the skin, and for the effect of heat upon inflammations of neighboring organs.

Cold enteroclysis (65° to 70° F.) has a beneficial action upon the whole intestinal tract, toning up the mucous membrane and stimulating the muscular tissue, and so increasing peristalsis. This is indicated in the treatment of internal hemorrhoids, inflammatory conditions of the rectum, prostate, deep urethra, etc. In hemorrhage from the bowel, very cold (50° F.) or very hot (120° F.) irrigations are used. It should not be forgotten, however, that prolonged enteroclysis with very hot or very cold fluid will cause a rise or lowering of the bodily temperature amounting to several degrees.

Rapidity of Flow.—The fluid should enter the bowel with com-

parative slowness, to avoid exciting peristalsis and to allow the fluid to be well distributed over the intestinal wall. Elevation of the reservoir 2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) for a low irrigation and 3 to 4 feet (90 to 120 cm.) for the high will give the proper flow.

Quantity.—A continuous irrigation of from ten minutes to one-half an hour or more at a time gives the best results in shock, septic conditions, toxemias, inflammations in the organs adjacent to the bowel, etc. Several gallons of solution are needed for such an irrigation. On an average, from 1 to 1 1/2 pints (473.11 c.c. to 710 c.c.) of solution in high enteroclysis, and from 2 to 8 ounces (59 to 236 c.c.) in the low irrigation are kept in the bowel continuously. For cleansing purposes, and in the treatment of diseases involving the mucous membrane of the bowel, the irrigation is continued until the solution returns clear.

Position of the Patient.—Enteroclysis may be performed with the patient (1) in the dorsal position, with hips elevated; (2) in the Sims, or left lateral prone position; and (3) in the knee-chest posture.

When it is desired to irrigate the whole colon thoroughly, the position of the patient may be altered to advantage from time to time in order to allow the force of gravity to act upon the fluid and permit it to reach all portions of the colon. Elevation of the patient's hips causes the fluid to gravitate toward the transverse colon, and thence along this portion of the bowel to the ascending colon if the patient is shifted from the left side to the right.

Technic.—The apparatus is properly connected and the reservoir is filled with the solution, first allowing a little to escape from the nozzle to expel any air and to see that everything works properly. Practically the same steps are followed in inserting the tube for enteroclysis as were detailed for giving an enema. The tube, well lubricated with vaselin or oil, is grasped in the fingers of the right hand not far from its extremity, while the left hand separates the patient's buttocks. The patient is instructed to strain sufficiently to relax the sphincter, and the tube is inserted at first upward and forward for a distance of 2 to 3 inches (5 to 7 cm.) and then upward and slightly backward toward the sacrum. There is very little difficulty in passing a rectal tube or an irrigating nozzle the necessary distance for a low irrigation, if the normal direction of the bowel is followed, a well-oiled tube almost slipping in of its own accord at times. To pass a flexible tube the remainder of the way into the sigmoid is not so simple, as it is not possible to guide the tube after it gets 3 or 4 inches (7.5 or 10 cm.) into the bowel, and it has to practically find its own way along. It will be found a distinct aid, however, in accomplishing this if the solution is

allowed to flow gently as soon as the anal canal is passed. This tends to make the tube stiffer and at the same time it straightens out the folds of mucous membrane and carries the valves out of the way, which might otherwise form obstructions. When the tube has been inserted to the desired distance, the reservoir is raised 3 or 4 feet (90 or 120 cm.), and the washing-out process begins.

In performing enteroclysis with a single tube, 1 to 1 1/2 quarts (946 to 1419 c.c.) of solution—depending upon the capacity and tolerance of the individual—are allowed to flow into the bowel before the fluid is permitted to return. If the fluid enters the bowel slowly and the

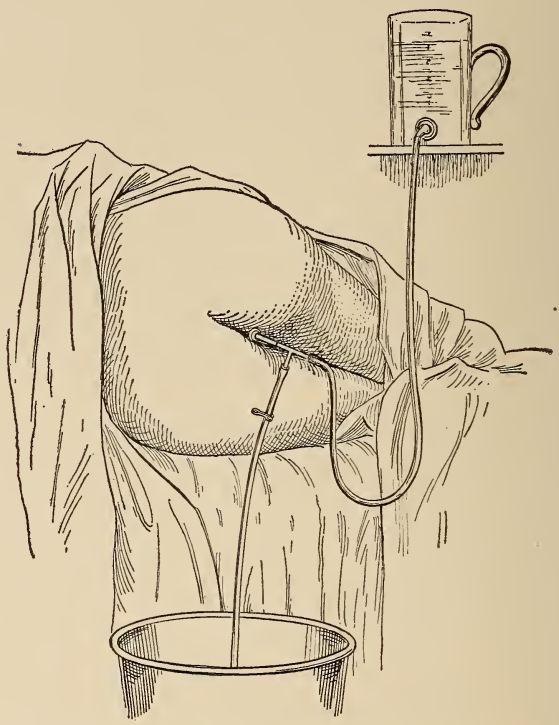


Fig. 535.—Showing one method of irrigating the bowel with a single tube.

desire on the part of the patient to expel it be resisted a few moments until it passes well into the colon, no great difficulty will be encountered. To withdraw the fluid, the outlet placed in the tube leading from the reservoir is opened (Fig. 535), or, if a funnel constitutes the reservoir, this is simply lowered below the level of the patient, and the solution escapes through the same tube by which it entered (Fig. 536). This process of lavage is repeated until the fluid returns clear.

The colon may be more thoroughly irrigated, as already mentioned, by altering the patient's position as follows: With the patient in the Sims position, for instance, and with the hips elevated, the descending colon is first thoroughly washed out. About 1 1/2 to 2 pints (710 to 946 c.c.) of solution are then retained, and the patient is gradually rolled to the dorsal position and then to the right side. This permits the fluid to pass from the descending colon to the transverse and

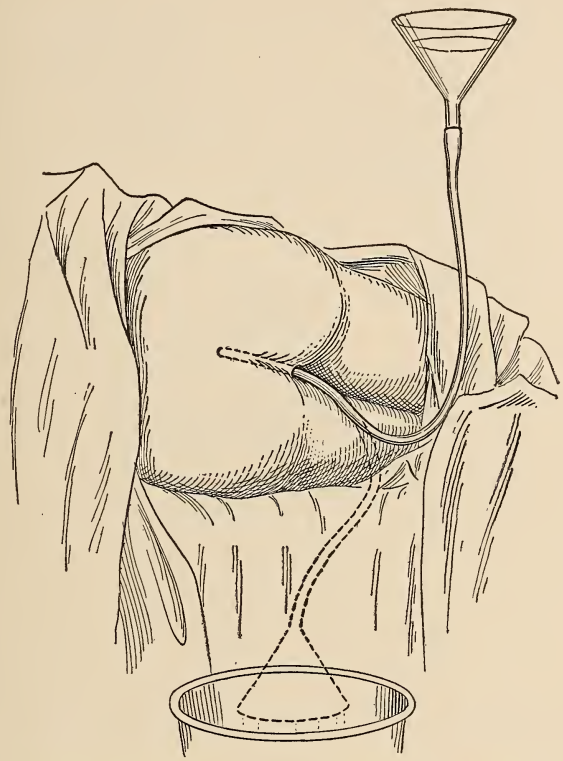


Fig. 536.—Showing the method of irrigating the bowel by means of a funnel and colon tube.

ascending colon. To allow the solution to gravitate down the ascending colon to the caput coli, the patient's shoulders are raised slightly higher than his hips. The process is then exactly reversed: the shoulders are first lowered, the patient then rolls to the dorsal position, and finally to the left side again.

In using the double-flow style of irrigator, the outflow tube is compressed until a pint (473.11 c.c.) or more of solution runs into the bowel (Fig. 537), when it is released, the solution still continuing to

flow in. In this way a current is soon established, and the descending colon and rectum are thoroughly washed out. During the irrigation the reservoir should not be allowed to become empty, the supply being replenished as often as necessary. In withdrawing an irrigator or a tube with openings upon the side, care should be taken to rotate the instrument slightly to prevent the mucous membrane from being caught in the fenestræ.

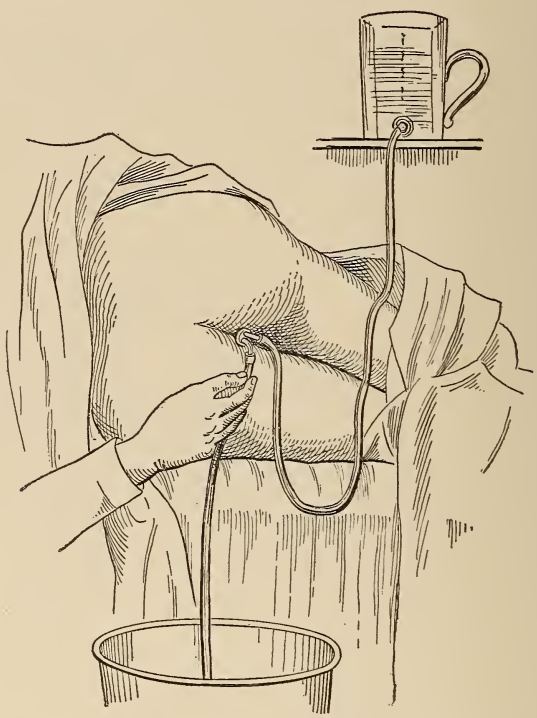


FIG. 537.—Showing the method of irrigating the bowel by means of a return-flow irrigator.

SALINE RECTAL INFUSIONS.

The value of saline infusions in the treatment of hemorrhage and in the prevention and relief of surgical shock has already been considered in Chapter V. The rectal infusion, being a somewhat slower and less effective method of introducing salt solution into the circulation than either the intravenous or the subcutaneous methods, is used with greater success in the milder forms of shock and hemorrhage, and in the severe cases as an adjunct to intravenous infusion or hypodermoclysis. It has, however, the distinct advantage of simplicity over the other two methods, requiring no preparation of the patient and but

the crudest form of apparatus; hence its value as an emergency measure. In septic conditions, toxemias, renal insufficiency, uremia, etc., the fluid thus introduced into the bowel is rapidly absorbed, and the skin, kidneys, and liver are stimulated to increased activity, with the rapid elimination of poisonous products as a result. Rectal infusions are also indicated when it is desirable to increase the quantity of fluid in the tissues, as, for example, in cases where large quantities of fluid are lost from purging, as in dysentery or cholera. It is, furthermore, a most valuable means of relieving the thirst so frequently complained of after abdominal operations.

Apparatus.—The equipment will not differ from that used in giving an ordinary enema. There will be required a thermometer, a graduated glass irrigating jar or fountain syringe, 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing, about 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.) in diameter, and a rectal tube, 20 inches (50 cm.) long and 3/8 to 1/2 inch (9 to 12 mm.) in diameter. In an emergency, a large funnel will answer as a reservoir, and a large long soft-rubber catheter will take the place of the rectal tube.

Solution.—Normal salt solution, (dr. 1 (3.9 gm.) of salt to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of water) is used. For a stimulating effect, whisky or brandy, oz. ss. to oz. 1 (15 to 30 c.c.) may be added. In surgical shock 30 ♏ (1.9 c.c.) of a 1 to 1000 solution of adrenalin chlorid may be added to the enema for the purpose of raising blood pressure.

Temperature.—The solution should enter the bowel at a temperature of 110° to 115° F. As there is but little loss of heat on account of the rapidity of the flow, the solution in the reservoir should be at the same temperature at which it is desired to have it enter the bowel, or not more than one or two degrees higher.

Rapidity of Flow.—The fluid should be introduced slowly and not with such rapidity as to excite intestinal spasm. With this in view, the reservoir is held not over 3 to 4 feet (90 to 120 cm.) above the patient.

Quantity.—Small amounts are more apt to be retained by the bowel. From 1/2 pint (236 c.c.) to a quart (946 c.c.) may be given at a single injection.

Position of the Patient.—The infusion may be given with the patient preferably in the Sims position with the hips raised or else in the knee-chest position. If it is not expedient to move the patient about, the dorsal position with the hips elevated and with the knees drawn up may be substituted.

Technic.—The reservoir is filled with the required amount of solu-

tion of the proper temperature, and a thermometer is placed in it that the temperature may be kept uniform. The rectal tube should be well lubricated with vaselin or oil. Some of the solution is then allowed to escape from the tube to expel any air or cold fluid. The flow is then shut off and the tube is grasped in the fingers of the right hand about 2 inches (5 cm.) from its extremity while the left hand separates the buttocks. As the patient strains slightly, relaxing the sphincter, the tube is gently inserted into the rectum. In doing this the normal direction of the bowel with the patient in the dorsal posture —first upward and forward, and then upward and backward—must be kept in the mind of the operator. When the internal sphincter is passed, the solution is again allowed to flow gently, in order to displace any feces, folds of mucous membrane, etc., that might act as an obstruction, and the tube is pushed on into the bowel for a distance of at least 8 to 10 inches (20 to 25 cm.). The reservoir is then raised from 3 to 4 feet (90 to 120 cm.), and the required amount of solution is introduced. If it is injected slowly and the tube is passed high up, no difficulty will be found in introducing and having retained often as much as a quart (946 c.c.) of solution. At the completion of the operation the tube is withdrawn and the patient is instructed to remain quiet in the recumbent position.

CONTINUOUS PROCTOCLYSIS.

By this method a continuous stream of saline solution is instilled into the rectum at very low pressure. Given slowly, so as not to irritate the rectum, enormous quantities of salt solution may be thus absorbed. It was originally employed by Murphy in the treatment of septic peritonitis in conjunction with free abdominal drainage, on the theory that the large quantity of fluid absorbed reverses the lymph currents, so that, instead of absorption taking place from the peritoneal surface, the lymphatics pour out fluid and wash out the peritoneum, as it were. At the same time, stimulation of the heart and kidneys results, and with the latter an increased elimination of toxins and septic material. While employed mainly in cases of peritonitis, where the results have certainly been marvelous, continuous proctoclysis will be found an excellent means of infusing salt solution in any septic condition or general toxemia, shock, uremia, etc.

Apparatus.—A glass reservoir or a fountain syringe with a capacity of at least 2 quarts (1892 c.c.), 3 to 4 feet (90 to 120 cm.) of rubber tubing 1/4 to 3/8 of an inch (6 to 9 mm.) in diameter, and a vaginal

nozzle of hard rubber with numerous openings on the sides, bent at an angle of 35 degrees about 2 inches (5 cm.) from the tip (Fig. 538) forms the simplest apparatus. Hot-water bags or hot-water cans, which surround the reservoir and prevent the solution from cooling, should also be provided.

Saxon has devised an apparatus especially for proctoclysis (Fig. 539), consisting of a copper bucket, inside of which is placed a glass reservoir for the salt solution. Between the copper bucket and reser-

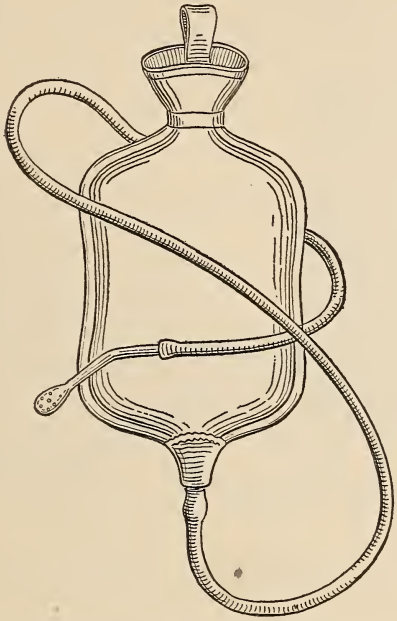


Fig. 538.—A very simple apparatus for continuous proctoclysis.

voir is provided a space of 2 1/2 inches (3.7 cm.) for hot water. A thermometer is placed in the tubing which leads from the reservoir, and a vent pipe for the escape of flatus is also provided.

A very simple apparatus is described by Iversen (*Jour. Am. Med. Assoc.*, June 12, 1909) in which the solution is kept at the required temperature by means of an 8-candle-power electric lamp. The mechanism is sufficiently clear from the accompanying illustration (Fig. 540). There are a number of more elaborate forms of apparatus made, however, in which the heat is furnished by a thermolite warmer or by electricity.

Solution.—Normal salt solution, dr. 1 (3.9 gm.) of salt to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of water, should be used.

Temperature.—The solution should be at a temperature of about 100° to 105° F. as it enters the rectum, and it must therefore be at a temperature of from 120° to 130° F. in the reservoir. The solution must be kept at a uniform degree of heat by either constantly replenishing with hot solution or by surrounding the reservoir with hot-water bags, unless one of the special heating devices is employed.

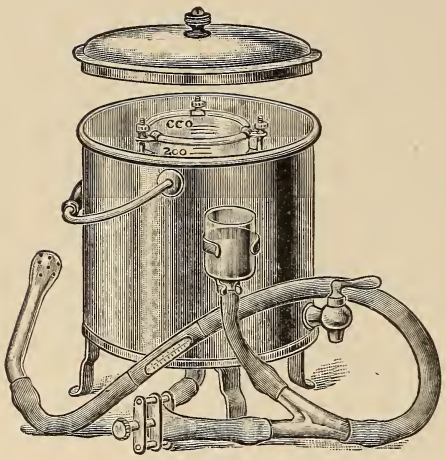


FIG. 539.

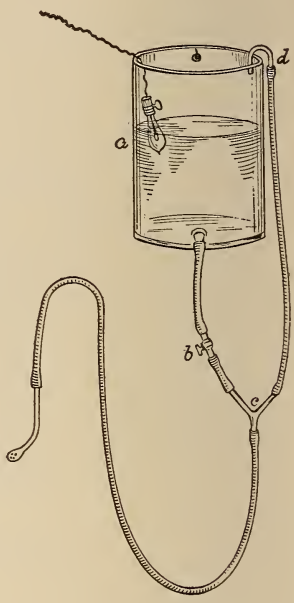


FIG. 540.

FIG. 539.—Saxon's apparatus for continuous proctoclysis.

FIG. 540.—Iversen's apparatus for continuous proctoclysis. *a*, Eight-candle-power electric bulb; *b*, cock; *c*, Y-shaped glass connection; *d*, vent tube for the escape of gas.

Rapidity of Flow.—The salt solution just trickles into the bowel, not much faster than it is absorbed, at about the rate of 60 to 80 drops (3.75 to 5 c.c.) a minute. In this way 1 1/2 pints (710 c.c.) will flow into the rectum in about two hours. The reservoir should be elevated only from 4 to 18 inches (10 to 45 cm.) above the level of the rectum, depending upon the rate of absorption, and the elevation of the reservoir must be so regulated that no accumulation of fluid occurs in the bowel.

Quantity.—The instillation is practically continuous, and the quantity of fluid introduced is limited only by the absorbing power of the rectum. From 6 to 15 quarts (6 to 15 liters) may be absorbed in twenty-four hours. Murphy has given as much as 30 pints (15 liters) in

twenty-four hours to a child of eleven. It was all retained. Monroe, however, sounds a note of warning against overuse of this method, claiming that it is possible for a patient to absorb more fluid than can be eliminated, shown by an overfull pulse, by cough, and by râles from edema of the lungs.

Technic.—The reservoir is filled with solution and sufficient fluid is allowed to escape to expel any air from the tubing. The right-angled nozzle, well-lubricated, is introduced into the rectum just beyond the sphincter muscle, so that the angle fits closely to the anus, and is secured in place by adhesive plaster passing to the thigh (Fig. 541). The reservoir is then raised about 6 inches (15 cm.)—just

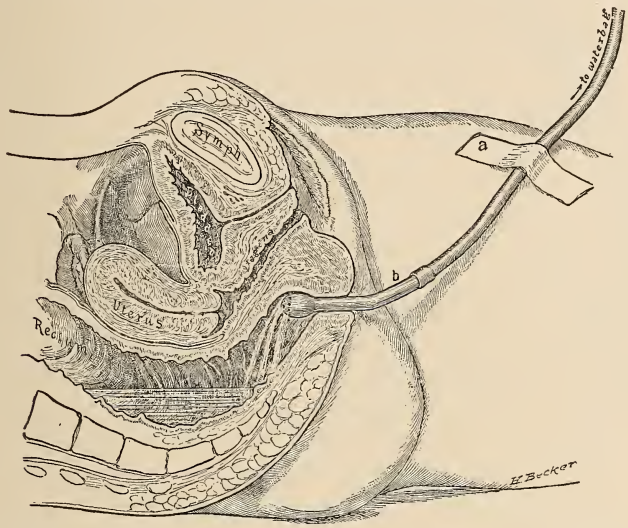


FIG. 541.—Showing the method of administering continuous proctoclysis. (Kelly and Noble.)

a, Adhesive strap fastening the tubing to the thigh; *b*, vaginal nozzle bent at an angle of 35 degrees.

sufficiently high to overcome the intraabdominal pressure and allow the fluid to trickle into the bowel. *Forceps or other means of constriction should not be applied to the tube to regulate the flow*, unless the apparatus be provided with an accessory vent to carry off the flatus, as they interfere with the free expulsion of gas through the tube or the return of fluid to the reservoir should the patient strain or vomit. The injection may be stopped every few hours if the pulse becomes too full or the rectum irritable; in such cases the tube is not disturbed. Murphy advises that the tube should not be removed except for defecation, as the constant reinsertion will prove irritating to the rectum.

It is rarely necessary to continue the proctoclysis for more than three or four days. Exact technic and almost constant attention on the part of the nurse are necessary to gain success with this method.

NUTRIENT ENEMATA.

The nutrient enema is employed in cases when feeding by the natural way is undesirable or impracticable. Rectal feeding has its time limitations, however. The capacity of the rectum is small and absorption is considerably slower than by the natural way, so that only about a quarter of the amount of nourishment necessary for sustenance can be given in this way. As a temporary expedient or as an adjunct to natural feeding it is most useful, but for permanent feeding it is quite impracticable. If it alone is depended upon for nourishment, life can rarely be prolonged for more than four to six weeks, though it is true that certain exceptional cases have been reported where patients have lived exclusively upon rectal feeding for longer periods.

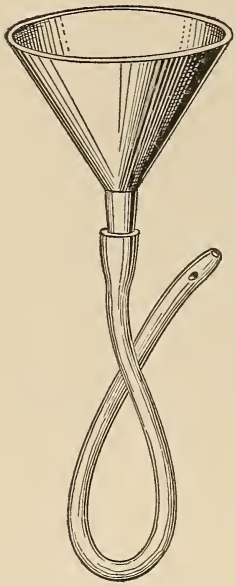


Fig. 542.—Funnel and colon tube for administering nutrient enemata.

Indications.—1. In cases where some impediment to the passage of food exists, as esophageal stricture, new growths encroaching upon the esophagus, and in pyloric or duodenal stenosis. 2. In incessant and uncontrollable vomiting. 3. In any condition where it is desirable to give the alimentary tract a rest, as in acute inflammation or ulceration of the upper part of the alimentary canal, acute gastritis, gastric ulcer, typhoid fever, and lesions of the small intestine. 4. As an adjunct to natural feeding in any condition when the patient cannot receive sufficient nourishment by mouth.

Apparatus.—A large glass funnel, 2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) of rubber tubing 1/4 to 3/8 of an inch (6 to 9 mm.) in diameter, and a plain rectal tube 20 inches (50 cm.) long, No. 35 French in size (Fig. 542) make a simple and very effective apparatus, and one that can be easily cleaned. If desired, a hard-rubber syringe with a capacity of from 4 to 6 ounces (118 to 178 c.c.) (Fig. 543) or a Davidson syringe attached directly to the rectal tube may be used. In children a No. 18 to 20 French ordinary rubber catheter is substituted for the rectal tube.

Asepsis.—The tube should be boiled before using, and it must be carefully cleaned after each injection. Syringes, if employed, should likewise be very thoroughly cleansed with soap and water every time they are used.

Material Employed for Feeding.—Whatever the form of nourishment used, it must be free from all irritating properties and should be small in bulk, or it will be immediately expelled. As the lower bowel secretes no digestive ferments, the substances injected must be of such a nature that they are readily absorbed, otherwise the enema acts as a

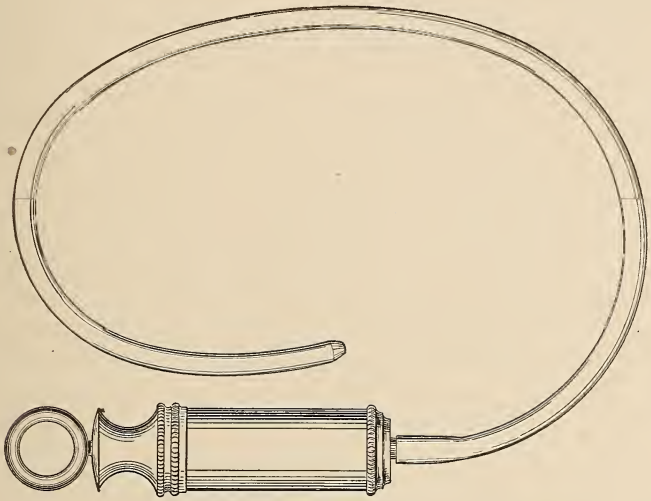


Fig. 543.—Colon tube and syringe for administering nutrient enemata. (Ashton.)

foreign body and proves irritating to the bowel. The food should always be fluid in character and, as far as is possible, predigested. As a general thing, starches and fats are to be avoided. Combinations of pancreatinized meat extracts, peptonized milk, and egg albumen will be found to be most readily taken up by the bowel. The addition of a small quantity of salt to each egg aids in its absorption. Alcohol in the form of red wine, brandy, or whisky may be incorporated in the enema when a stimulating effect is desired. A good stimulating enema consists of brandy oz. ii (59.20 c.c.), ammonium carbonate gr. xx (1.3 gm.), and beef tea q.s. ad oz. viii (236 c.c.). A pint (473.11 c.c.) of black coffee alone has also a marked stimulating effect.

The following formulæ (Ashton) will be found very useful. In continued rectal feeding it is well to use them in rotation.

(1) Beef juice oz. iii (89 c.c.), and liquor pancreatis dr. ii (7.5 cc.)

(2) One raw egg; salt, gr. xv (0.97 gm.); brandy or whisky oz. ss. (15 c.c.); and peptonized milk oz. iii (89 c.c.).

(3) One egg; liquor pancreatis dr. ii (7.5 c.c.); and beef juice oz. iii (89 c.c.).

(4) One raw egg, and peptonized milk oz. iii (89 c.c.).

(5) Salt, gr. xv (0.97 gm.); beef juice oz. i (30 c.c.); and peptonized milk oz. iii (89 c.c.).

(6) Yolk of one raw egg; brandy or whisky dr. vi (22.5 c.c.); liquor pancreatis dr. ii (7.5 c.c.); and beef-tea oz. iii (89 c.c.).

Temperature.—Give the injection at a temperature near that of the body, about 95° F.—never cold or very hot—as peristalsis may be excited and the rectum will probably reject the feeding.

Quantity.—Only a small amount of food should be injected at one time, usually 1 to 6 ounces (30 to 178 c.c.), depending on the retaining capacity of the rectum and whether the patient is a child or an adult. Large quantities are liable to be expelled by the bowel.

Frequency of Feedings.—This will depend upon the quantity taken at one time. A patient who can retain as much as 6 ounces (178 c.c.) need only be fed every six hours. Cases where but small amounts are retained will require three-to four-hour interval feedings.

Care of the Rectum.—A cleansing enema, consisting of salt dr. ii (7.8 gm.) to a quart (946 c.c.) of lukewarm water, is given each morning at least an hour before the first feeding. This serves to wash out of the bowel any particles of waste matter or mucus; it furthermore cleanses the mucous membrane and prepares it for more thorough absorption by stimulating the circulation.

Position of the Patient.—In giving any retained enema the patient should preferably be in the Sims position with the hips elevated or in the knee-chest position. If it is inexpedient to move the patient, the dorsal position with hips elevated and knees drawn up will suffice.

Technic.—The tube is well lubricated with sterile vaselin or with sweet oil to facilitate its passage and to avoid irritating the rectum. The tube is slowly and gently introduced, according to the directions already given for the introduction of the enema or enteroclysis tube well into the bowel for a distance of 10 to 12 inches (25 to 30 cm.), so as to prevent expulsion of the food and furnish an extensive surface for absorption. To prevent injecting air, the tube and the reservoir or the syringe are filled with the material to be injected before the tube is inserted into the rectum. The fluid must be injected very slowly. When the proper amount is introduced, the tube is carefully removed and the patient is instructed to remain quietly in the recumbent

position with the hips elevated for at least half an hour, to lessen the chances of the food being expelled. In cases of marked irritability of the rectum, 5 to 10 ♏. (0.3 to 0.6 c.c.) of the tincture of opium may be added to the enema.

INJECTIONS OF FLUID OR AIR INTO THE BOWEL IN INTUSSUSCEPTION.

The slow injection of bland fluids or air into the bowel may be employed for its mechanical effect in overcoming an obstruction due to intussusception. Success from either method, however, depends largely upon an early diagnosis of the condition, for disinvagination becomes more difficult in direct proportion to the length of time which has elapsed from the onset of the symptoms. *After the first twenty-four hours of an attack, attempts at reduction by means of hydrostatic* or *gaseous pressure are not justifiable*, as tight adhesions, which render reduction impossible, or strangulation and partial necrosis of the gut with the added danger of rupture may be present. The greatest objection to this method of treatment lies in the fact that in many cases it is impossible to tell immediately whether the invagination has been reduced, and the success of the procedure can only be determined by allowing the patient to come out of the anesthetic and carefully observing the symptoms.

Not more than fifteen minutes to a half hour should be consumed in attempts at relief by these nonoperative measures. In all cases preparations for operation should be made beforehand so that, should reduction fail, an immediate laparotomy can be performed. Treatment by injections is, of course, only applicable when the intussusception occurs in the large bowel, on account of the obstruction by the ileo-cecal valve to the passage of fluid or gas into the small intestine.

Treatment by Injection of Fluid.—Apparatus.—A fountain syringe or a graduated glass irrigating jar as a reservoir and a rectal nozzle or a large catheter, attached to the reservoir by 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing 1/4 to 3/8 inch (6 to 9 mm.) in diameter, should be provided.

Solutions Employed.—Normal salt solution—salt dr. 1 (3.9 gm.) to a pint (473.11 c.c.) of water—thin gruel or milk and water may be used.

Temperature.—As the relaxing effect of heat is desirable, the solution should be at a temperature of about 105° F. as it enters the bowel.

Quantity.—The capacity of the colon varies from 10 ounces

(295 c.c.) in a child of five months to a pint (473.11 c.c.) or more in a child a year old. Not more than 1 1/2 pints (710 c.c.) of solution should be injected into the bowel of a child under one year. In an adult, the rectum and colon hold as much as 9 pints (4285 c.c.) without undue distention.

Rate of Flow.—The fluid should enter the bowel in a gradual, steady, continuous flow. From ten to fifteen minutes are consumed in injecting the given quantity of solution.

Amount of Pressure.—Starting with the reservoir elevated about 3 feet (90 cm.), which gives a pressure of less than 2 pounds, the height may be slowly increased to 4 or 5 feet (120 to 150 cm.) if necessary. A greater pressure than obtained at the latter elevation is not advisable for fear of rupturing the bowel. This danger should be constantly borne in mind.

Position of the Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal position, with the hips elevated.

Anesthesia.—Anesthesia with ether to the full surgical extent to produce muscular relaxation is necessary.

Technic.—The nozzle or catheter is well lubricated with oil or vaselin, and any air is expelled from the tube. The nozzle is then inserted into the rectum for several inches, and the reservoir is elevated about 3 feet (90 cm.) and the solution is allowed to flow slowly into the bowel. Escape of the fluid along the side of the tube is prevented by tightly packing cotton about the anus and pressing the buttocks firmly together. While the solution is flowing, the abdomen may be *very gently* kneaded or the child may be inverted several times. Diminution of the pressure necessary to inject the fluid indicates that disinvagination or else a rupture of the bowel has occurred, and the injection should be immediately stopped.

After a thorough trial by injection, if in doubt as to the result, the solution is allowed to escape and the patient is examined. If there were present at the outset a distinct tumor, the success of the procedure will be denoted by its disappearance. A tumor still present and retaining its full size will, of course, signify a failure, and an immediate laparotomy should be performed while the patient is still under the anesthetic.

Treatment by Inflation with Air.—In employing air to distend the bowel the pressure cannot be so well regulated as with fluid, and, furthermore, the weight of the column of water, which in some cases seems to be an important factor, is lacking.

Apparatus.—A rectal tube or a catheter of appropriate size and an

ordinary bellows or a Davidson syringe will be required. In order to permit the escape of air the moment it is desired, a T-tube of glass may be inserted between the rectal tube and the inflation apparatus. One limb of the T-tube is inserted into the rectal tube, the other into the tube leading from the inflator, while to the third limb a short piece of rubber tubing is attached which can be opened or shut by a clip.

Gases Used.—Ordinary air, oxygen, or carbonic acid gas may be employed.

Pressure.—The air should be injected very slowly. The best guide as to the amount to be introduced and the pressure is the distention produced along the colon and in the abdomen.

Anesthesia.—A general anesthetic should be employed to insure extreme relaxation.

Technic.—The tube or catheter is introduced well into the rectum and the inflating apparatus is connected. The air is very gently and slowly pumped in, while an assistant compresses the buttocks to prevent its escape. Gentle abdominal massage or inversion of the patient may be tried while the inflation is progressing. Reduction may be indicated by rumbling sounds or a gush of liquid fecal matter.

DILATATION OF RECTAL STRICTURES BY THE BOUGIE.

The surgical treatment of rectal strictures consists of: (1) Gradual dilatation; (2) proctotomy; (3) excision; (4) entero-anastomosis; and (5) colostomy. Treatment by dilatation, though not often curative, is a most valuable palliative measure. By means of gradual dilatation, the lumen of a stricture may be so much increased in size that the patient is relieved of his obstructive symptoms and may be kept comfortable for years, provided the dilatation be maintained by the occasional passage of a bougie.

Exact information as to the site, caliber, length, and thickness of the constriction should be previously obtained by means of a digital examination, if within 4 inches (10 cm.) of the anus, or if seated higher up, by the use of the proctoscope and bougie, as already described, before any attempt at dilatation is made. The majority of strictures are situated within 3 inches (7.5 cm.) of the anus, though they may be located at any point higher up, or within the anus itself. The stricture may consist of a ring-like constriction, or a narrowing of the canal for a distance of 1 inch (2.5 cm.) or more, or it may be tortuous in shape. The bowel above the stricture is often markedly dilated and the rectal

walls may be so thinned that rupture of the gut readily occurs upon the use of slight force. At the seat of stricture the mucous membrane is often ulcerated or replaced by dense scar tissue.

Instruments.—The instrument employed for dilatation should be a soft-rubber bougie with a conical tip, such as the Wales instrument (Fig. 544). Metal dilators and those of rigid material should be avoided as dangerous.

Asepsis.—The bougies are to be sterilized before using, and the bowels should be well cleaned out, the rectum being irrigated with normal salt solution both before and after each treatment.

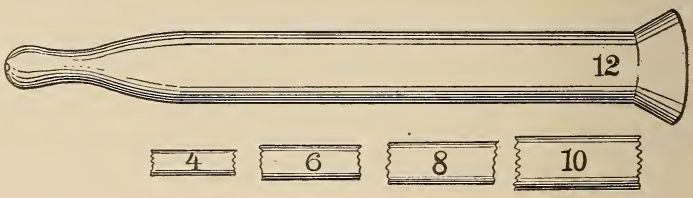


Fig. 544.—Wales' bougies.

Rapidity of Dilatation.—The stricture is stretched slowly and gradually. Dilatation ought not to be performed rapidly or by divulsion. Such methods are extremely dangerous, as, apart from the shock, on account of the laceration of the tissues there is great risk of hemorrhage and septic infection.

Frequency.—This depends upon the amount of tenderness and irritation as the result of the manipulations. If the bougies are passed at too frequent intervals, irritation and inflammation are produced which induce the very condition it is intended to correct. As a rule, the stretching should not take place oftener than every other day. In some cases, the lapse of two or three days between each treatment is necessary, for the bougie ought not to be reintroduced until all signs of the discomfort it has produced have entirely passed off. Later, when full dilatation has been reached, an interval up to a month may elapse between each treatment, if it is found that there is no tendency for the contraction to recur in the interval.

Position of the Patient.—The patient is to be in the Sims position, with the knees well drawn up, or in the knee-chest position if a proctoscope is to be used.

Technic.—The bougie is well-lubricated and, guided by the right index-finger, is made to enter the orifice of the constriction; or, better still, it is inserted accurately into the stricture under the guidance of

the eye through a proctoscope introduced to the seat of stricture (Fig. 545), as recommended by Tuttle. The advantages of this method are obvious. The greatest gentleness must be observed in inserting the

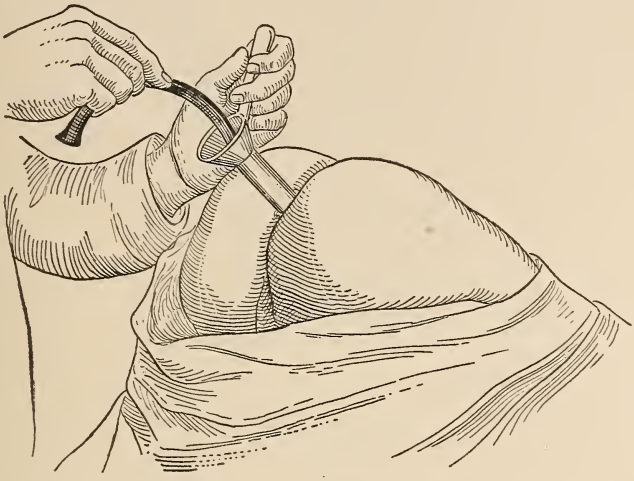


FIG. 545.—Method of inserting a bougie into a stricture through a proctoscope.

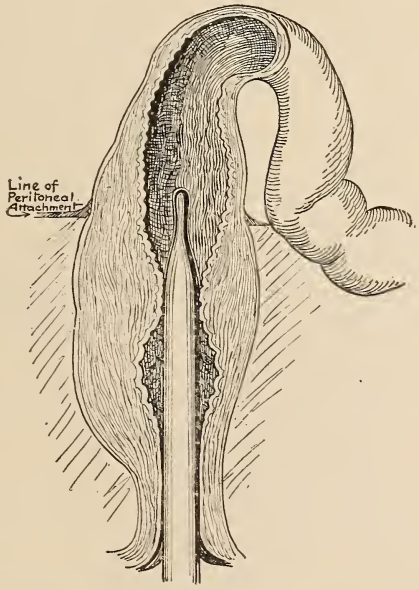


FIG. 546.—Showing a bougie passed through a stricture.

bougies, and under no circumstances should the tissues be lacerated. The first instrument should be of such a size that it enters the stricture with ease. The next one, a size larger, is left in place for a few moments,

and then a third instrument is inserted if it can be done without pain to the patient. The proctoscope is then withdrawn and the bougie left *in situ* ten to fifteen minutes.

Following the treatment, an irrigation of hot normal salt solution is given, and the patient is kept quiet for a quarter to a half-hour. At the subsequent sittings, it is well to commence with an instrument a size smaller than the largest one used at the previous sitting. An increase in the dilatation is attempted at each instrument.

COLONIC MASSAGE.

Abdominal massage is indicated for the relief of chronic constipation and its accompanying symptoms the result of the atony of the intestines, in which class of cases, if properly carried out, it is a most valuable therapeutic measure, tending to strengthen the muscles of the abdomen and bowel and the tone of the nervous system, as well as to stimulate the secretory function of the colon and to increase the peristaltic action. To be of value, however, it should be performed by one trained for such work. Massage is contraindicated during menstruation and in pregnancy, and, of course, in the presence of such pathological conditions as gastric or intestinal ulcers, intestinal obstruction, appendicitis, hemorrhage from the bowel, inflammation of the peritoneum, etc.

Time for Massage.—The best time for massage is early in the morning before breakfast. In cases where this is not possible, care should be observed that it is not given until at least one hour has elapsed since the last meal.

Duration.—Each treatment should consume from five to fifteen minutes. The treatments should be persisted in until the regularity of the stools is re-established, to effect which may require several weeks or months.

Frequency.—Treatments should be given daily.

Preparations.—The bladder and, if possible, the rectum should be empty.

Position of the Patient.—The patient lies in the dorsal position with the shoulders and knees slightly elevated, so as to secure as much relaxation as possible.

Technic.—The masseur stands upon the patient's left side and begins his manipulations by making light circular movements (effleurage), starting at the cecum and following the course of the ascending, transverse, and descending colon. The small intestine and the rest of the abdomen are similarly manipulated. Then deep pressure and

FIG. 547.—Deep pressure colonic massage. (Bandler.)

FIG. 548.—Showing the method of kneading the colon. (Bandler.)

kneading movements (pétrissage) are substituted. In these movements the whole colon is manipulated in the first instance by performing zigzag movements while making deep pressure with one hand superimposed upon the other (Fig. 547), and, in the second instance, by raising up deep handgrasps of the abdominal muscles and the intestines and kneading them by alternately compressing and relaxing the fingers (Fig. 548). In performing these deeper manipulations one will be governed as to the amount of force that may be employed by the sensitiveness of the patient. Care should be taken that the manipulations be not too vigorous, lest some injury to the viscera result.

AUTO-MASSAGE.

Massage may be very effectually carried out by the patient himself by rolling a ball over the abdomen, beginning at the cecum and following the course of the colon up the right side, then across the abdomen, and down the left side in the direction of the descending colon. A cannon ball or a wooden ball filled with shot weighing 3 to 5 pounds (1.4 to 2.2 K.), covered with chamois or flannel (Fig. 549), may be used for this purpose.

Fig. 549.—Cannon ball for auto-massage of the abdomen.

THE APPLICATION OF ELECTRICITY TO THE RECTUM AND COLON.

Electricity is of value in conjunction with abdominal massage in all forms of constipation, but especially so in the atonic variety. Under the stimulating action of the electric current, the nerves, muscles, and glandular structures connected with the bowel are favorably influenced, so that the peristaltic action and the secretion of mucus are increased, at the same time, the contracting power of the voluntary muscles of the abdomen is strengthened.

Both the faradic and the galvanic currents are employed, the former being generally preferred for atonic constipation and intestinal paresis

and the galvanic for spastic constipation and painful neuroses. They may be applied percutaneously or internally.

Apparatus.—For the percutaneous applications a large flat sponge electrode (Fig. 550) and a small sponge electrode (Fig. 551) will be required. When it is desired to make internal applications, a special irrigating rectal electrode, such as Boas' (Fig. 552) or Kemp's, and a flat abdominal sponge electrode will be required.

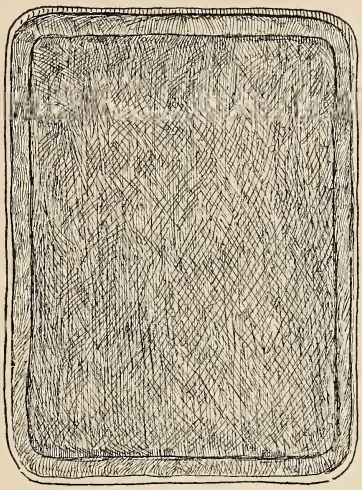


Fig. 550.—Large flat sponge electrode.

Strength of Current.—As there is no means of estimating the strength of the faradic current, the sensations of the patient should be the guide, the current being strong enough to cause muscular contractions but no pain. For galvanism, from 10 to 15 ma. of current are ordinarily required.

Duration of Application.—Each treatment should consume from ten to fifteen minutes.

Frequency.—At first applications are made daily, then every other day, and, as the conditions improve, once or twice a week.

Time of Application.—Treatments are given with best results at night, just before the patient retires.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the recumbent position, with the head slightly elevated and the legs flexed, so as to relax the abdominal muscles.

Technic.—1. *Percutaneous Application.*—The positive pole is attached to a large flat electrode, and the latter, well moistened, is placed over the spinal column. The negative electrode is then applied

to the abdomen for a few minutes at a time, first over the cecum, then along the course of the transverse colon, and finally along the descending colon. This is supplemented by circular motions with the negative electrode over the same regions. Finally, the entire abdomen is similarly treated.

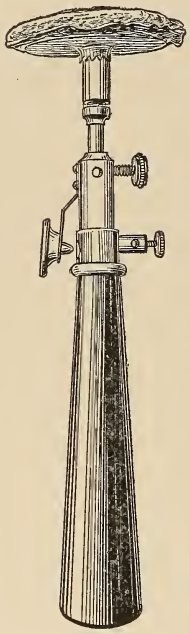


FIG. 551.—Small sponge electrode. (Bandler.)

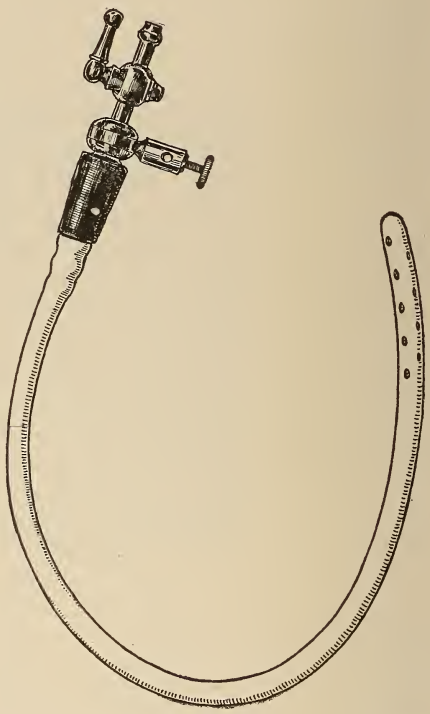


FIG. 552.—Boas' rectal electrode. (Bandler.)

2. *Rectal Application.*—An irrigating electrode attached to the negative pole of the battery is inserted in the rectum and the positive electrode is placed over the spine or abdomen. When the current is turned on, saline solution is allowed to flow slowly through the rectal electrode, carrying the current to all portions of the colon.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE URETHRA AND PROSTATE.

Anatomic Considerations.

The Male Urethra.—The urethra is a closed canal, composed of erectile and muscular tissue, and lined by mucous membrane, extending from the bladder to the external urinary meatus. Its entire length is from 6 1/2 to 9 inches (16 to 23 cm.), depending upon the length of

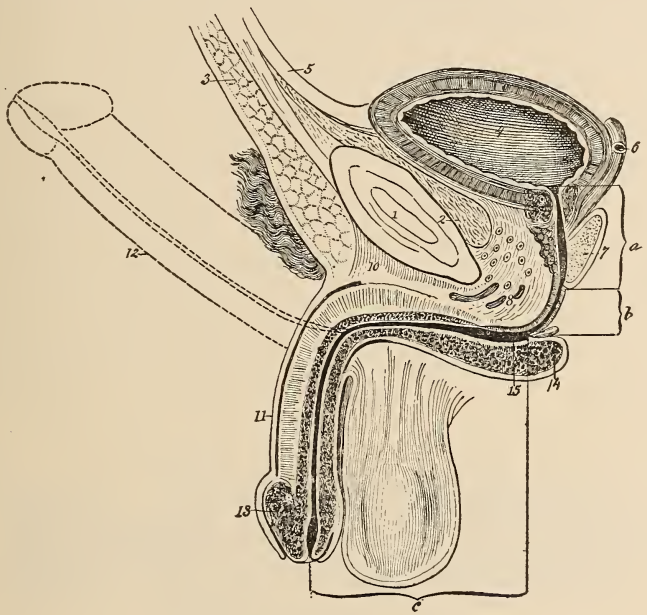


FIG. 553.—Section of penis, bladder, etc. (Testut.)

1, Symphysis pubis; 2, prevesical space; 3, abdominal wall; 4, bladder; 5, urachus; 6, seminal vesicle and vas deferens; 7, prostate; 8, plexus of Santorini; 9, sphincter vesicæ; 10, suspensory ligament of penis; 11, penis in flaccid condition; 12, penis in state of erection; 13, glans penis; 14, bulb of urethra; 15, cul-de-sac of bulb. *a*, Prostatic urethra; *b*, membranous urethra; *c*, spongy urethra.

the penis. For purposes of description it is divided into the following portions, corresponding to the parts through which it passes: (1) The spongy portion, or pars cavernosa, (2) the membranous portion, or pars membranosa, and (3) the prostatic portion, or pars prostatica (Fig. 553). Clinically and for all practical purposes, however, it may

be divided into the anterior urethra, that portion lying in front of the anterior layer of the triangular ligament; and the posterior urethra, the portion lying behind the anterior layer of the triangular ligament.

The Spongy Urethra.—It extends the entire length of the corpus spongiosum opening externally upon the glans penis as a vertical slit, the meatus. The spongy urethra measures on the average about 6 inches (15 cm.). The lumen of this portion of the urethra is not of the same size throughout, but presents two fusiform dilatations, one at the bulb, the bulbous urethra, and the other within the glans, the fossa navicularis.

The mucous membrane is pale pink in color and has opening upon its surface a number of glands and crypts. In the floor of the bulbous portion the ducts of Cowper's glands open side by side. Scattered all through the mucous membrane of the urethra are the urethral glands or glands of Littré. Upon the roof, the mucous membrane is studded with small crypts or diverticula, the lacunæ. The orifices of these lacunæ open toward the meatus forming little pockets into which instruments may find their way and be arrested in their passage. One of these, the lacuna magna, is especially liable to interfere with the passage of instruments. It lies in the roof of the fossa navicularis about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) from the meatus. These mucous glands and lacunæ are liable to infection and may become the seat of small gonorrheal abscesses.

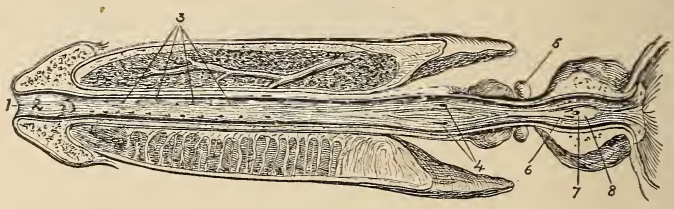


Fig. 554.—The interior of the urethra.

1, Meatus; 2, fossa navicularis; 3, urethral glands; 4, orifices of Cowper's glands; 5, Cowper's glands; 6, ejaculatory ducts; 7, sinus pocularis; 8, verumontanum.

The Membranous Urethra.—It is that portion of the urethra lying between the two layers of the triangular ligament, and extends from the apex of the prostate gland to the bulb of the spongy portion. It measures about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) in length. The membranous urethra is the most fixed, as well as the least distensible of all segments of the urethra. In its course it pierces both layers of the triangular ligament and receives prolongations from these structures, and is also

surrounded by the compressor urethræ muscle. Spasm of this muscle is a frequent hindrance to catheterization and the passage of sounds. Embedded in the fibers of the compressor urethræ and on either side of the membranous urethra lie the glands of Cowper, the ducts from which open in the anterior portion of the bulbous urethra.

The mucous membrane lining this portion of the canal is darker in color and much more sensitive than that in the spongy portion.

Prostatic Urethra.—It measures 3/4 to 1 1/4 inches (2 to 3 cm.) in length and extends from the internal urethral orifice to the posterior layer of the triangular ligament, traversing the prostate gland from base to apex. In the presence of hypertrophy of the prostate, the caliber of this portion of the canal may become obstructed or deformed.

The floor of the prostatic urethra is encroached upon by a fusiform swelling, the verumontanum or caput gallinaginis. At the front and most prominent part of the verumontanum is seen the slit-like opening of the sinus pocularis, a blind pouch or diverticulum, usually 1/4 to 1/3 inch (6 to 8 mm.) in length, which runs up in the substance of the prostate beneath the middle lobe. It is regarded as homologous with the uterus in the female. Within the sinus pocularis or upon its margins are the slit-like openings of the ejaculatory ducts. On each side of the verumontanum is a depression, the prostatic sinus into which the openings of the prostatic ducts empty.

The Caliber of the Urethra.—The caliber of the urethra varies greatly. While the average diameter is 0.3 inch (0.75 cm.) or 27 French scale, the individual urethra is not of the same uniform caliber from end to end, there being a number of constricted and dilated portions. The wide parts are: (1) The pars prostatica, (2) the bulbous urethra, and (3) the fossa navicularis. The narrow portions are: (1) The meatus, (2) the penoscrotal junction, (3) the membranous urethra, and (4) the internal prostatic opening. Of these the meatus is the narrowest, and in a normal individual an instrument that will pass the meatus should pass the other narrow points.

Normally, the walls of the urethra are in contact and on cross section the canal appears as a mere slit. In the prostatic portion, from the projection of the verumontanum, it has the appearance of a half moon, in the membranous portion it is star-shaped; in the cavernous portion, it appears as a transverse slit; in the glans, as a vertical slit.

Curves of the Urethra.—The anterior urethra is freely movable and may be made to assume any curve. The posterior urethra is

fixed, however, between the suspensory ligament of the penis and the internal vesical opening, and its natural curves are important to bear in mind in the passage of instruments. In the prostatic portion the direction of the urethra is downward; in the membranous, downward and forward; and in the spongy portion, forward and slightly upward for 2 inches (5 cm.), and then sharply downward. Thus two curves are formed: (1) concave forward, and (2) concave downward. The latter may be straightened or obliterated by lifting up the penis, but the first is fixed and can only be straightened by using some force. In children and in thin individuals, the fixed curve is much sharper, while in large, stout men it becomes flattened. A distended bladder or an enlarged prostate lengthens it.

The Female Urethra.—It extends from the neck of the bladder to the external urinary meatus, curving downward and a little forward. The female urethra measures 1 1/4 to 1 1/2 inches (3 to 3.8 cm.) in length and 1/4 inch (6 mm.) in diameter, but, as it is not surrounded by resisting structures, it is possible to so dilate it as to admit the finger. It lies in front of, and is very closely associated with, the anterior wall of the vagina through which it may be readily palpated.

Its walls, composed of muscular, erectile, and mucous tissue, are normally in contact, presenting a stellate appearance on cross section. The mucous membrane is pale in color and is thrown into a series of longitudinal folds, one of which, on the upper half of the posterior wall, is quite marked and corresponds to the verumontanum in the male. The compressor urethræ muscle surrounds it, between the layers of the triangular ligament.

Close to the posterior margin of the external urethral orifice on either side of the mid-line are the tubes of Skene. As in the male, the external meatus is the narrowest portion. It appears as a vertical slit 1/5 to 1/4 inch (5 to 6 mm.) in length, about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) posterior to the base of the clitoris.

The Prostate Gland.—The prostate is a sexual organ composed of glandular, muscular, and fibrous tissue, lying in front of the neck of the bladder. It is pierced above by the urethra and below by the ejaculatory ducts. In shape it resembles an irregular truncated cone, the apex of which rests against the posterior layer of the triangular ligament while the base is directed toward the bladder. In size it measures about 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) transversely, 1 1/4 inches (3 cm.) vertically, and 3/4 inch (1.9 cm.) longitudinally. It weighs 4 to 6 drams (16 to 23 gm.). The size of the prostate is not constant, however, varying greatly in different individuals and depending upon the

age of the patient. In a child, the gland is only rudimentary, not reaching the full size until about the twenty-fifth year. During the later years of life, it often becomes hypertrophied, not infrequently enlarging to over twice its original size.

The prostate consists of two lateral lobes which bulge posteriorly and a so-called middle lobe. The latter is that portion of the gland which lies between the two ejaculatory ducts directly posterior to the beginning of the urethra. If enlarged, as occurs when the gland is the seat of senile hypertrophy, the median lobe forms a projection which

FIG. 555.—The prostate gland and seminal vesicles.

may cause urinary obstruction and interfere with the passage of instruments. The two lateral lobes meet and become continuous in front and behind the urethra. The tissue forming this union in front is spoken of as the anterior commissure and the portion behind as the posterior commissure or isthmus (pars intermedia).

Diagnostic Methods.

In the examination of the urethra some definite system should be followed. The first step consists in taking a careful history of the case. This should embrace the family history, a history of past ailments, and the patient's description of the present trouble, its onset, duration, etc. While in some cases of urethral disease exhaustive questioning of the patient is superfluous, it will be found that an exact history will often be of the greatest aid in arriving at a correct diagnosis.

The examiner should then take up more in detail the symptoms complained of by the patient. It should be ascertained whether the patient has or has had a urethral discharge, and, if so, its character; whether it is sufficient to stain or stiffen the linen, or whether it simply glues the lips of the meatus together; whether it occurs only with the first urine passed, or in the intervals as well; whether there is any discharge with defecation; also whether defecation is accompanied by pain about the prostate or rectum. It is important to inquire into the act of urination, ascertaining whether the passage of urine causes any pain, and, if so, its character, and whether the pain is present at the beginning or end of the act; also whether there is an increased frequency in urination. The patient should be questioned as to the character of the stream of urine, its force and caliber; whether there is any dribbling; whether the stream is interrupted or suddenly stopped, such as would be the case with enlargement of the prostate or in the presence of a vesical calculus. The character of the urine passed should also be inquired into; whether the presence of blood has been noted, and whether shreds are present, and their character. More exact information upon these latter points, however, will be obtained after a complete examination of the urine.

Having questioned the patient along the lines above indicated, secretions and discharges, if present, should be collected for examination (see pages 203, 534), and then the actual examination of the urethra and prostate may be taken up. The methods available for this include: (1) glass tests and injection tests for the purpose of locating the seat of the discharge, (2) inspection, (3) palpation, and (4) instrumental examination. *The use of instruments, however, should not be undertaken if there is an active discharge from the urethra* for fear of aggravating the inflammation and producing such complications as abscess, stricture, etc. It is far better to postpone such exploration until the severity of the inflammation and the discharge have been reduced by the use of injections or irrigations.

GLASS TESTS.

A number of tests have been employed for the purpose of determining whether the seat of the pus has its origin in the anterior or posterior urethra. The simplest of these are known as the two-glass test and the three-glass test.

The Two-Glass Test.—It is performed as follows: the patient is instructed to hold his urine for three or four hours, and upon presenting

himself for examination he is told to urinate into two glasses or graduates. He should pass about 2 ounces (59 c.c.) into the first glass and the remainder into the second. If the contents of the first glass, in which are collected the washings from both the anterior and posterior urethra, contains pus or shreds revealed by holding the glass before a strong light and the contents of the second glass is clear, it may be inferred that the anterior urethra is involved, but the posterior urethra, if at all, only slightly so. If, on the other hand, the contents of both glasses are cloudy or contain shreds, it shows that there is sufficient secretion from the posterior urethra to have escaped into the bladder and discolored its contents, or that the secretion comes from the bladder itself, the ureters, or kidneys. In the former case, the contents of the first glass is more turbid than that in the second glass; while in the latter conditions there is but little difference between the two specimens.

Another method and one that is more certain in differentiating between an anterior and posterior urethritis, consists in first thoroughly irrigating the anterior urethra with a warm boric acid or normal salt solution by means of a catheter introduced as far as the bulb, and then having the patient urinate into two glasses. If the contents of both glasses are clear, we may be sure the posterior urethra is free. Pus or shreds appearing in the second glass indicate a posterior urethritis, or that they come from the bladder or beyond.

The Wolbarst Three-Glass Test.—This is more reliable than the two-glass test, and is also employed for the purpose of determining whether the seminal vesicles are inflamed. The technic is as follows: The anterior urethra is washed out with sterile water until the washings return clear. These washings are collected in the first glass and represent the contents of the anterior urethra. A soft catheter is next introduced into the bladder and a sample of its contents is drawn off into a second glass. This represents the bladder urine. If this specimen proves to be clear and free from shreds, the catheter is removed and the patient is instructed to void a little urine into a third glass. This glass represents the contents of the posterior urethra. If it should be found, however, that the contents of the second glass is not clear, that is, if the bladder urine is cloudy, the catheter is left in place and the bladder is emptied and is then washed out with sterile water, allowing from 4 to 6 ounces (120 to 180 c.c.) of clear solution to remain. The catheter is then removed and the test is carried out as before for the third glass. The prostate and seminal vesicles are next massaged and the patient then voids the urine or solution containing pus expressed from the prostate and seminal vesicles into a fourth glass.

INJECTION TEST.

For the purpose of differentiating between an anterior and a posterior urethritis, the anterior urethra may be injected with a solution that will color the shreds in that portion of the canal. A 1 per cent. solution of methylene blue is employed. By means of a blunt-pointed urethral syringe the anterior urethra is filled with the methylene blue and the patient is instructed to hold the solution in the urethra for about a minute. The solution is then allowed to escape. If upon urination the shreds appear blue, they come from the anterior urethra; unstained shreds from the posterior urethra. A microscopical examination may be necessary, however, to determine whether the shreds remain unstained. In making this test it is essential that the patient should not have urinated for some time previously.

INSPECTION.

In the Male.—In the male, inspection of the urethra without the aid of instruments is limited to the meatus and the exterior of the canal as far as the peno-scrotal junction. Swelling, signs of inflammation, new growths, etc., which present externally may thus be recognized. While comparatively limited in scope, inspection should never be neglected, but should form part of the routine examination.

Position of Patient.—The patient may stand or be in the dorsal position.

Technic.—The penis is elevated so as to bring its under surface to view and any abnormalities are noted. The presence or absence of a discharge should also be determined. By stripping the urethra from the scrotum forward by means of the index-finger applied externally, the presence of any discharge may be demonstrated. If present, some should be obtained upon a slide, and later should be stained and examined for gonococci.

In the Female.—In the female, the mouth and the vaginal surface of the canal in its entire course may be inspected.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be placed in the dorsal position.

Technic.—The operator, sitting in front, separates the labia and notes the condition of the meatus and searches for signs of inflammation, the presence of new growths, eversion of the mucous membrane, discharges, etc. The presence of the latter may be more readily demonstrated by stripping the canal from the bladder forward by means of a finger passed into the vagina (Fig. 556). The mouth of the urethra

may be exposed by drawing the lips apart by means of the fingers, one placed on each side as shown in Fig. 557. In this manner the orifices of Skene's glands may be exposed. Finally, the index-finger or a speculum is passed into the vagina and its posterior wall is depressed, so that the whole extent of the vaginal surface of the urethra is exposed. In this manner tumors, dilatations, cysts, sacculations, etc., will be noted.

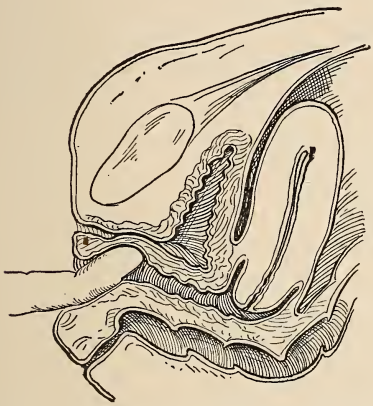


Fig. 556.—Method of stripping a discharge from the urethra. (Ashton.)

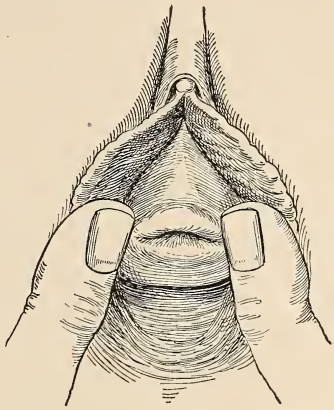


Fig. 557.—Method of inspecting the urethal orifice in the female. (Ashton.)

PALPATION.

In the Male.—Like inspection, palpation of the urethra is of limited value, especially in the male. By it, however, changes in the consistency, sensitiveness, and form of the canal may be recognized.

Position of Patient.—The urethra may be palpated with the patient standing or in the dorsal position. To palpate the prostate the patient should be placed in the knee-chest position, or should bend over with the hands resting upon a chair and the thighs separated.

Technic.—In palpating the urethra the penis should be grasped just behind the glans between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, and, while putting the organ on the stretch, the penile portion of the urethra is palpated between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand (Fig. 558). It should be noted whether the urethra is elastic, as it normally should be, or whether it is hard, indurated, or nodular. An inflamed urethra will be painful to the touch and will feel tense and swollen. A urethral abscess appears as a painful swelling bulging the wall of the canal. A cancerous growth will be hard, nodular, and adherent. By inserting a sound and then palpating the urethra upon

it more valuable information may be obtained, as changes in the consistency of the canal will be accentuated.

To palpate the membranous urethra and prostate a rectal examination will be necessary. For this the bladder should preferably contain

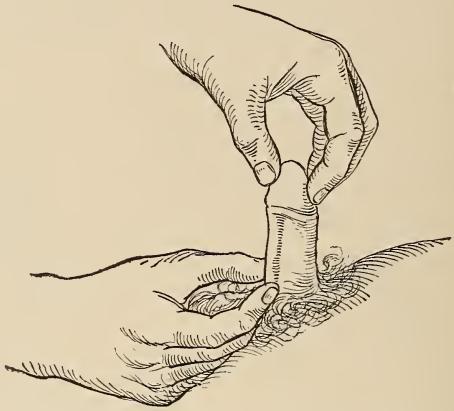


FIG. 558.—External palpation of the urethra.

FIG. 559.—Showing the method of palpating the prostate gland.

a little urine. The operator standing upon the patient's left then inserts his right forefinger, protected by a finger cot and well lubricated, into the bowel (see Palpation of the Rectum, page 480). After passing the sphincter, the examining finger comes in contact with the mem-

branous urethra for a space of 1/2 inch (1 cm.), and then the prostate gland is reached. Normally, the latter is not very distinctly felt, but in the presence of hypertrophy it readily is, and sometimes it is so enlarged that it can be palpated bimanually. Points of tenderness, softening, painful swellings, or a general enlargement should be looked for and any difference between the two lobes should be noted. The condition of the seminal vesicles should likewise be investigated. They lie above each lobe of the prostate extending upward and outward, but are not palpable, unless enlarged or thickened by disease.

If desired, the seminal vesicles and prostate may at this time be massaged for the purpose of obtaining their secretions for examination.

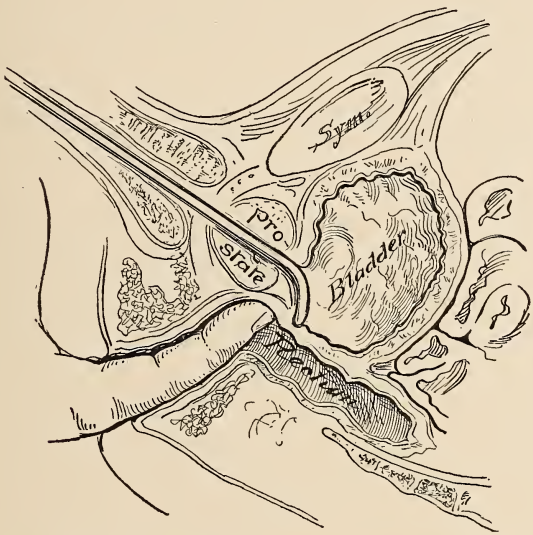


Fig. 560.—Combined rectal and instrumental examination of the prostate gland.

This is done by carrying the finger up over each seminal vesicle in turn and, while making firm pressure, carrying the finger downward over each lobe of the prostate toward its base. The massage will force the discharge into the urethra and it may then be collected upon a clean slide by stripping the urethra from behind forward.

At times a combined examination with the finger in the rectum and an instrument in the urethra will be of assistance in exploring the prostate. A bladder sound or other metallic instrument is introduced into the bladder, and, by engaging the prostate between it and the examining finger (Fig. 560), the extent of hypertrophy as well as the amount of induration may be ascertained.

In the Female.—In the female, the entire canal may be explored by palpation through the vagina and valuable information is thus often obtained.

Position of Patient.—The patient is placed in the dorsal position.

Technic.—The examiner, sitting in front, separates the labia with the fingers of his left hand, while he palpates with his right index-finger. The meatus is first examined by pressing with the examining finger placed just outside the vaginal outlet up against the symphysis. Then by means of the index-finger in the vagina the whole length of the urethra may be explored by tracing the course of the canal back as far as the bladder. By rolling the urethra with the index-finger from side to side and exerting pressure upward upon the canal with the inferior and posterior surfaces of the symphysis as points of counter-pressure, changes as to sensitiveness, consistency, or form of the canal may be readily recognized.

EXAMINATION BY SOUNDS AND BOUGIES.

Having obtained all the information possible by the means already detailed, an instrumental exploration of the urethra, *provided the latter is not the seat of an acute inflammation*, for the purpose of determining the presence or absence of strictures is the next step. While such symptoms as a gleety discharge, dribbling at the end of urination, malformation in the shape of the stream, difficulty in starting the stream, retention of urine, etc., may point strongly to the presence of a stricture, they are by no means infallible, and it is only by careful local examination of the urethra that the diagnosis of stricture can be absolutely made. For the purpose of simply locating a stricture and determining its size, sounds and bougies are employed, while for determining the length of the contracture the bulbous bougie or bougie à boule is necessary.

In inserting an instrument into the urethra, the utmost gentleness is required. The instrument should be passed slowly so that, if an obstruction is suddenly encountered, there will be no danger of producing injury to the canal; even *the slightest force should always be avoided.* It is only by cultivating a delicate touch that painless manipulation of urethral instruments is possible. In making such an examination it should be remembered that the passage of an instrument for the first time may result in a severe chill, and a rise of temperature. To prevent this, it is well to terminate the examination with an instillation of 1 to 1500 nitrate of silver to lessen the urethral congestion. After one exploration the urethra should be given a rest for a few days,

as not infrequently the irritation produced aggravates a chronic urethral discharge.

Instruments.—Blunt steel sounds of the proper curve (Fig. 561) are preferable for the diagnosis of strictures of a caliber above 15

Fig. 561.—Blunt steel sound.

French. There is considerable risk of injuring the urethra when a rigid steel instrument of a size smaller than 15 French is used, and it is safer for those not especially skilled in the manipulation of urethral instruments to employ woven-silk olivary bougies (Fig. 562) in examin-

Fig. 562.—Flexible urethral bougie.

ing small strictures. A set of these instruments from the smallest size made up to No. 20 French should, therefore, be at hand. The best are made in France. For finding the channel through very tight strictures whalebone filiform bougies (Fig. 563) are necessary. They

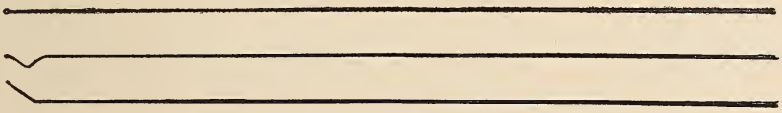


Fig. 563.—Filiform bougies.

are provided with small bulbous points from which they taper for 1 inch (2.5 cm.) or so until the full size of the shaft is reached. To facilitate the entrance of these instruments into tortuous canals the tips may be softened in hot water and then bent into various shapes,

Fig. 564.—Female sound. (Ashton.)

as curves, spirals, angles, etc. For diagnostic purposes the filiforms should be about 12 inches long (30 cm.). For exploring the female urethra a slightly curved steel sound is employed (Fig. 564).

Asepsis.—Metal instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per

cent. soda solution. The best makes of the silk-elastic instruments may also be boiled, but some of the others will not last long if so treated, and it is safer to sterilize them in formalin vapor for twenty-four hours and then rinse well in sterile water before using. A special apparatus (Fig. 565) is required for this, however. It consists of a glass cylinder about 16 inches (40 cm.) long with a perforated plate near the top for holding the catheters and in the base a receptacle for formalin tablets. In its absence the instrument may be soaked in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution followed by immersion in a saturated boric acid solution and rinsing in sterile water. Whalebone bougies may be boiled, though they will not stand prolonged boiling. The examiner's hands should be likewise carefully cleaned.

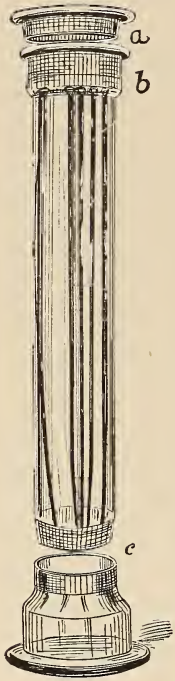


Fig. 565.—Formalin sterilizer for urethral instruments. *a*, Top; *b*, rack for catheters; *c*, container for formalin.

The glans penis should be first washed with soap and water, then with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid solution followed by sterile water. The urethra is irrigated with a warm saturated solution of boric acid or with a 1 to 5000 solution of potassium permanganate both before and after the examination.

Position of Patient.—The patient should lie in the dorsal position with his shoulders slightly raised and thighs flexed and rotated somewhat outward, and near that side of the table upon which the operator stands. The operator takes his place just above the patient's hips and facing the patient's side, upon whichever side of the table is most convenient for him—generally the left side is chosen.

Technic.—In beginning the examination *the largest instrument that will pass the meatus* should be introduced. As the meatus is the narrowest portion of the urethra, any instrument that can be introduced through it will pass along the entire canal, unless some contraction is present. Should the meatus be abnormally small, it may be enlarged by an incision (see page 578). The operator grasps the penis behind the corona between the ring and middle fingers of the left hand and with the thumb and index-fingers of the same hand he retracts the foreskin and separates the lips of the meatus. The sound, warmed and well lubricated with one of the Iceland-moss preparations,

is grasped lightly between the fingers of the right hand, and is *gently* introduced into the meatus. As the point of the instrument is inserted in the meatus the handle should lie parallel to the abdominal wall and

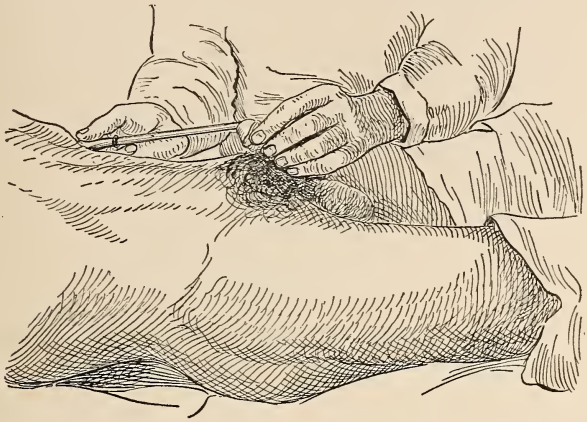


Fig. 566.—First step in inserting a urethral sound.

in line with the fold of the groin (Fig. 566). From this position the handle is gradually swept to the center line (Fig. 567), and the instrument is further introduced with its point first hugging the floor of the

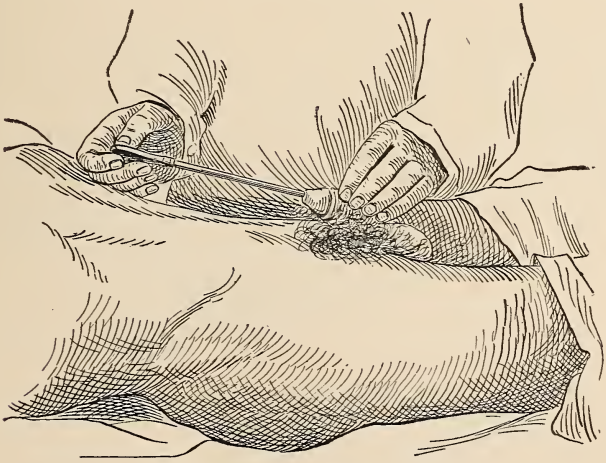


Fig. 567.—Second step in inserting a urethral sound.

urethra and then *gently* following the roof of the canal through the rest of its course into the bladder. The instrument is then pushed onward and downward, the penis being drawn over it until the point

of the sound is deep in the bulbous urethra (Fig. 568). The handle is next gradually raised to a perpendicular and is then depressed,

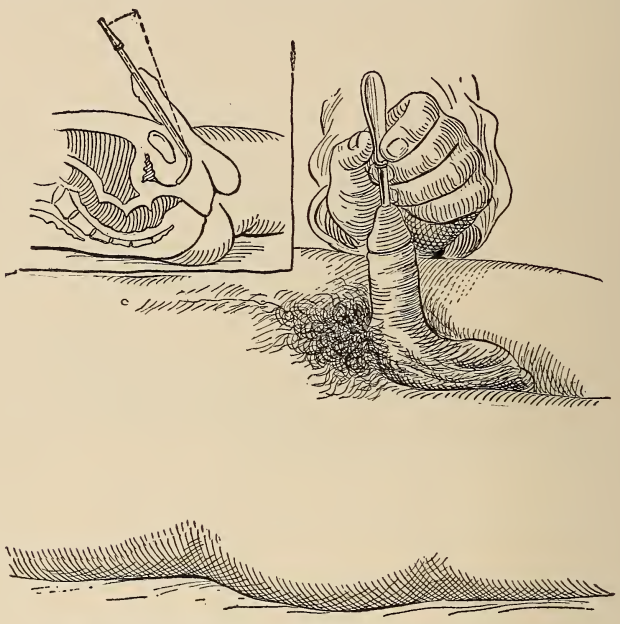


Fig. 568.—Third step in inserting a urethral sound.

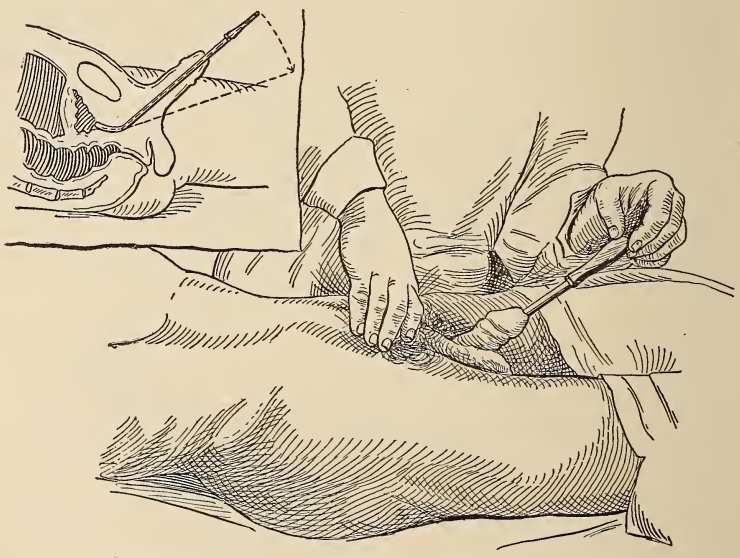


Fig. 569.—Fourth step in inserting a urethral sound.

thus permitting the point of the instrument to follow the fixed curve of the urethra beneath the pubic arch (Fig. 569).

Care must be taken, however, not to raise the handle of the instrument too soon, that is before the beak has entered well into the bulbous urethra, as otherwise its point will be made to lodge against the upper part of the anterior layer of the triangular ligament instead of

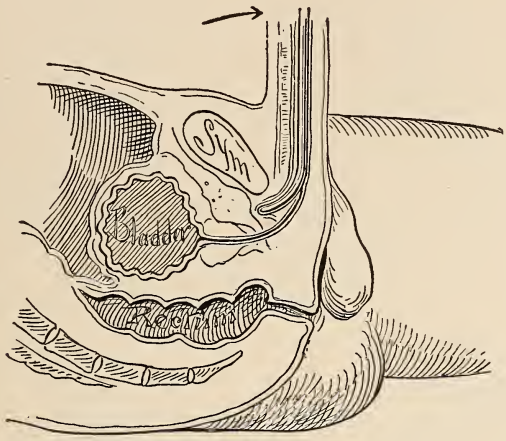


FIG. 570.—Showing false passage of sound from depressing the handle of the instrument too soon.

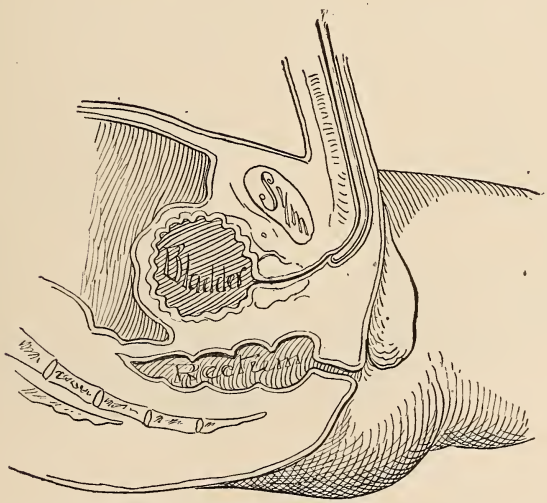


FIG. 571.—Showing the tip of the sound caught at the anterior layer of the triangular ligament.

entering the membranous portion (Fig. 570). Again, the sound may fail to enter the membranous urethra from the point lodging against the lower portion of the triangular ligament (Fig. 571). This may be avoided by depressing the handle and at the same time by lifting up

on the point of the instrument with the fingers inserted behind the scrotum so as to press against the perineum (Fig. 572).

Having passed the beak of the sound into the membranous urethra

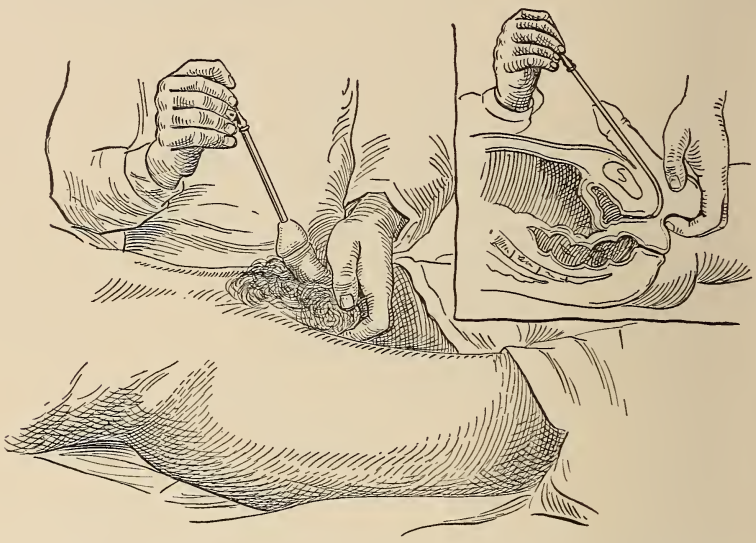


Fig. 572.—Method of lifting up the tip of the sound obstructed by the lower portion of the triangular ligament.

Fig. 573.—Final step in inserting a urethral sound.

it is then made to traverse the remainder of the canal and to enter the bladder by sweeping the handle forward and downward between the thighs (Fig. 573), provided, of course, that no obstruction has been encountered. While this is being done the free hand should make

pressure over the pubes in order to relax the suspensory ligament of the penis.

By rotating the sound about its own axis it can readily be ascertained whether the beak has entered the bladder or is still in the prostatic urethra. Furthermore, by sweeping the beak of the instrument about the vesical neck any irregularity or disproportion between the two lobes of the prostate will be noticed.

If an obstruction is met in any portion of the canal, the instrument should be slightly withdrawn, and the penis put on the stretch, so as to straighten out any folds of mucous membrane in which the point of the instrument may have caught. If it then fails to pass, the obstruction is due either to spasm or to an organic stricture. When the seat of obstruction is in front of the bulbous urethra, spasm may be ruled out, but an obstruction at the bulbo-membranous junction or in the membranous urethra, on the other hand, is often caused by spasm. To determine this, the instrument is not withdrawn, but should be kept firmly and gently pressed against the face of the obstruction for a few moments, when, if spasm were the cause, it will in time subside so that the instrument can be readily passed into the bladder. Furthermore, upon attempting to withdraw the instrument, that characteristic grasping of the instrument such as is found in the presence of a tight organic stricture will be absent. When an obstruction is met deeper than 6 1/2 inches (16.5 cm.) from the meatus, or in the prostatic urethra, stricture may be ruled out; such an obstruction may be due to an enlarged prostate, a stone, or spasm of the internal sphincter.

In this way the presence of a stricture is determined and its distance from the meatus is readily estimated. To ascertain its caliber is the next thing. When the examining instrument encounters the stricture no force should be used in attempting to make it pass; instead, that particular instrument is withdrawn, and smaller sizes inserted in succession, substituting flexible bougies for steel instruments below a No. 15 French, until an instrument is found that will readily pass. If even the smallest-size bougies will not pass, filiforms should be used. As a general rule, *no attempt should be made to pass a filiform on the same day that other exploration has been attempted*, for after repeated attempts have been made to pass an instrument, the opening in the stricture becomes distorted from pressure of the sounds or bougies, and for a time is impassable even to a filiform. In using filiforms it should be remembered that, owing to their small size, they are liable to be obstructed from being caught in folds of mucous membrane or in the orifices of the glands and ducts so abundant throughout the urethra,

and it is very easy to make a false passage with one of these instruments if undue force is used. If a filiform catches in a pocket or fold of mucous membrane, it should be withdrawn slightly, and then gently advanced, or it may be gently rotated as it is advanced. Sometimes the passage of a filiform will be greatly facilitated by injecting sufficient sterile oil through the meatus alongside the filiform to thoroughly distend the canal, and then, while keeping the lips of the meatus closed, the instrument is gently advanced.

When once an instrument has entered the stricture there can be no doubt of this fact from the tightness with which it is grasped by the

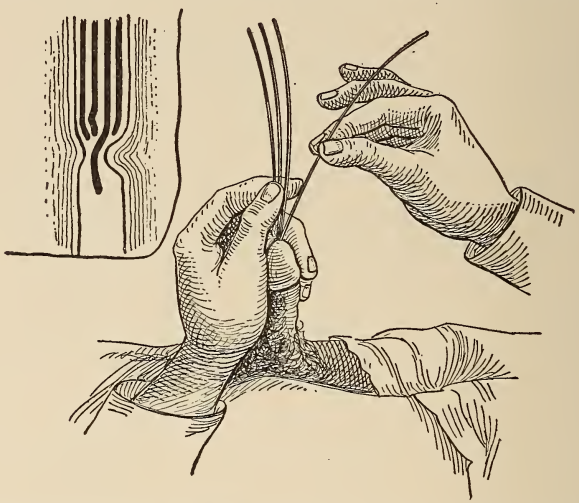


FIG. 574.—Showing the method of passing a filiform bougie through a small stricture by first filling the canal with filiforms.

stricture, a sensation, which, once recognized, will not be forgotten. Should it not be possible to find the opening with a single filiform, the canal may be filled with them and, by first advancing one and then another, it will usually be possible to make one engage in the stricture (Fig. 574). Failing by this maneuver, a urethroscope may be introduced down to the face of the stricture and through it the instrument may be passed under direct vision.

After such exploration the urethra should be irrigated with warm normal salt solution or with a warm saturated solution of boric acid.

EXAMINATION BY THE BOUGIE À BOULE.

The bougie à boule or bulbous bougie is employed for the purpose of determining the size and length of a stricture. The usefulness of

this instrument is limited to the anterior urethra, as, if passed into the membranous portion, the compressor urethræ muscle is liable to contract about the bulb of the instrument and give a sensation of stricture. Furthermore, when the canal is the seat of more than one stricture, it is frequently impossible with the bougie à boule to detect the deeper ones, as those in the anterior portion of the canal may be so tight that the passage of an instrument sufficiently large to detect the deeper ones is out of the question.

Instruments.—The bulbous bougie consists of a flexible shaft, upon the end of which is mounted an acorn-shaped tip. The head of the instrument should be short and should join the shaft at rather an abrupt angle. They are made of metal or of woven material with a rubber head (Fig. 575). The latter are preferable as being less rigid. These instruments are made in sizes from 5 to 40.

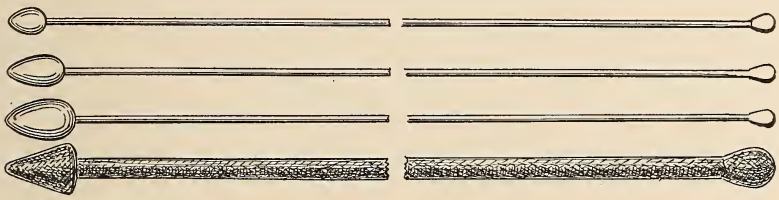


Fig. 575.—Urethral bougies à boule.

Asepsis.—The proper sterilization of these instruments has already been described in detail (page 539). The hands of the operator are to be thoroughly cleaned. The glans penis should be washed off with soap and water, and then wiped with a swap wet with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution followed by sterile water. The urethra should be thoroughly washed out with a 1 to 5000 potassium permanganate solution, or a saturated solution of boric acid both before and after examination.

Position of Patient.—The patient lies upon a firm table in the dorsal position. The operator stands upon the side most convenient for him, facing the patient's side and just above his hips.

Technic.—As large an instrument as will pass the meatus is chosen. The operator grasps the penis behind the corona between the middle and ring fingers of the left hand, and with the thumb and forefinger of the same hand retracts the foreskin and opens the meatus. The bougie, well lubricated and held lightly between the thumb and first two fingers of the right hand, is introduced until an obstruction is met (Fig. 576). The distance of the obstruction from the meatus is

measured upon the shaft and the instrument is withdrawn. Successively smaller sizes are introduced until a size that will pass the stricture

FIG. 576.—Method of estimating the length of a urethral stricture. The bougie à boule arrested at the face of the stricture.

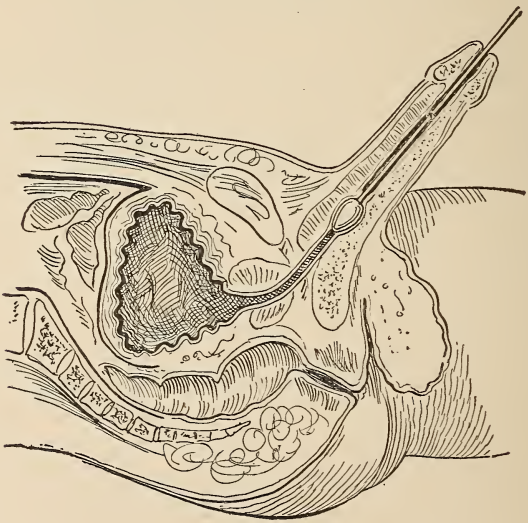


FIG. 577.—Method of estimating the length of a urethral stricture. The base of the bougie à boule withdrawn until in contact with the distal end of the stricture.

is reached. From this the size of the stricture is determined. The instrument is passed entirely through the stricture, and is then with-

drawn until resistance caused by the shoulder of the instrument striking the distal face of the stricture is felt (Fig. 577). The shaft is then grasped at the meatus as a guide, and the instrument is removed. The distance from the meatus to the shoulder is then measured, and subtracting the previous measurement from this gives the length of the stricture. In this way the entire anterior urethra to the bulbo-membranous junction may be explored and strictures, if present, calibrated.

In exploring the deep urethra the shaft of the instrument, if of wire, should be bent to correspond to the normal curve of the canal. It is then introduced in the same manner as a sound (see page 540). As already mentioned, spasmodic contraction of the compressor urethræ muscle may simulate stricture. After removal of the bougie the urethra should be irrigated with boric acid solution.

URETHROMETRY.

It is a method of measuring the caliber of the anterior urethra by means of a special instrument, the urethrometer. This instrument has an advantage over a sound or bougie in that it can be introduced through a narrow meatus and strictures of large caliber can be detected and measured. At the same time, several strictures may be examined by one insertion of the instrument. The method is, however, more irritating to the urethral mucous membrane than the use of a sound or bougie, and it is only applicable to the anterior urethra. In inexperi-

Fig. 578.—Otis' urethrometer.

a, Instrument open; *b*, instrument closed; *c*, rubber stall to cover the end of instrument.

enced hands it is often an unreliable method of examination, as strictures that do not exist may be imagined to be present, which turn out to be the normal constrictions of the canal.

Instruments.—The urethrometer of Otis (Fig. 578) consists of a small straight cannula marked off in inches and half-inches, ending in a series of short metallic arms hinged upon themselves, and upon the shaft of the instrument, which may be enlarged into a bulb-like shape of any size—from 16 to 45 French—by turning a thumb-screw at the proximal end of the instrument. A dial and indicator show the

extent of expansion. A thin rubber stall is drawn over the end of the instrument when closed, for the purpose of protecting the urethra.

Asepsis.—The urethrometer is boiled in a 1 per cent. solution of carbonate of soda. The external genitals are thoroughly cleaned, and the urethra is irrigated with a mild antiseptic solution. The operator's hands are sterilized in the usual way.

Position of Patient.—The patient is placed in the dorsal recumbent posture.

Technic.—The closed instrument, warmed and lubricated, is introduced through the meatus and is passed as far as the bulbo-membranous junction. The bulb is then expanded by turning the thumbscrew upon the proximal end of the instrument until the patient feels a fulness in the perineum. This indicates the normal size of that portion of the urethra. The instrument is then slowly withdrawn until an obstruction is met, when the instrument is screwed down until it is of sufficiently small size to pass and is then again enlarged and drawn forward. In this way the entire anterior urethra may be measured, and strictures located and calibrated. It should be remembered when employing this instrument that the urethra is not of uniform caliber, but normally is the seat of dilatations and constrictions. Thus, the bulbous urethra is the widest and most distensible portion, and the meatus the most contracted. More or less constriction of the canal is also encountered at the peno-scrotal junction.

At the completion of the operation the canal is irrigated with an antiseptic solution.

ESTIMATION OF THE LENGTH OF THE URETHRA.

This procedure is of value in determining whether the prostate is enlarged. For practical purposes the length of the urethra is the distance it is necessary to pass a catheter from the meatus before urine begins to flow. This may vary from 6 1/2 to 9 inches (16 to 22 cm.), but on the average it is 7 1/2 to 8 1/4 inches (19 to 21 cm.). A marked increase beyond the normal in the urethral length indicates that the prostatic urethra is lengthened and that the prostate is therefore enlarged.

Instruments.—An ordinary silk gum-elastic catheter or a catheter marked off in inches (Fig. 579) may be employed.

Asepsis.—The catheter is boiled or immersed in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution followed by rinsing in sterile water. The external genitals are thoroughly cleansed and the urethra is irrigated with a

mild antiseptic solution. The operator's hands are also thoroughly cleansed.

Position of Patient.—The dorsal position is employed.

Technic.—The catheter, well lubricated, is introduced into the bladder until urine begins to flow. It is then withdrawn until the flow just stops and the point where the catheter protrudes from the meatus is noted. The distance from this mark to the eye of the catheter represents the length of the urethra. If the catheter passes without

Fig. 579.—Catheter marked off in inches.

obstruction and urine begins to flow when the eye of the catheter is a distance of from 7 1/2 to 8 1/4 inches (19 to 21 cm.) from the meatus, we may conclude that the prostate is not enlarged. On the other hand, a marked increase in the distance the catheter has to travel indicates an increase in the length of the prostatic urethra.

URETHROSCOPY.

It consists in direct inspection of the interior of the urethra through a metal tube by the aid of suitable illumination. While in the routine examination of the urethra direct inspection is not always necessary, the urethroscope becomes a valuable instrument for the diagnosis of conditions in which the pathological changes are slight and of such a character as not to be detected by means of the sound or bougie. Lesions of the mucous membrane may be thus accurately located and their character definitely determined. Furthermore, by means of the urethroscope, it is possible to make local applications directly to diseased areas or to remove calculi, foreign bodies, polypi, etc., (see page 572). The instrument is also sometimes of value in the treatment of strictures, as by its aid it is possible to discover the opening of a very tight or eccentrically placed stricture and insert a filiform under direct vision.

To successfully employ the urethroscope care and gentleness in manipulation are absolutely essential and the operator must have had considerable experience in its use and must be familiar with the normal appearance of the different portions of the urethra in order to properly interpret the findings. If strictures exist or the caliber of the canal is below 22 French, preliminary dilatation by means of sounds

should be carried out. In acute gonorrhea the use of the urethroscope is contraindicated.

Apparatus.—The urethroscope consists of a metal tube supplied

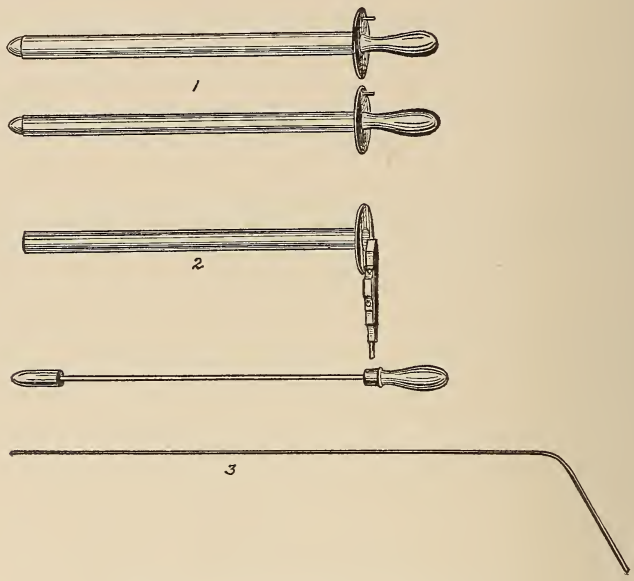


FIG. 580.—Instruments for urethroscopy.
1, Chetwood's tubes; 2, tube with light in place; 3, applicator.

with an obturator to aid in its introduction and an electric light for illuminating its interior. The tubes for the use in the anterior urethra are straight and are 4 to 5 inches (10 to 12 cm.) long, while those for the posterior urethra are 5 to 6 inches (12 to 15 cm.) long;

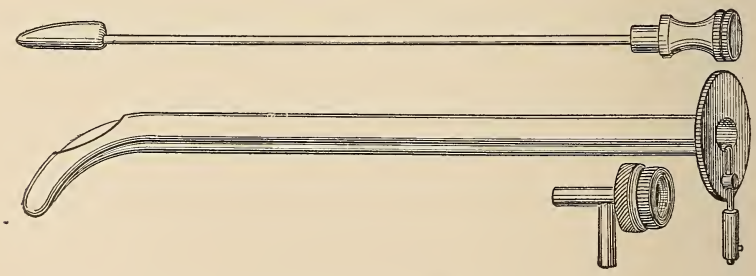


FIG. 581.—Swinburne's urethroscope for examining the posterior urethra.

a straight tube may be used in the posterior urethra or the tube may be obtained with the distal end slightly curved to facilitate its introduction (Fig. 581). The caliber of the tubes is from 22 to 32 French. The illumination is furnished through a two-or

four-volt lamp from a four-to six-dry-cell battery. In the Chetwood instrument, the illumination is supplied by means of a delicate cold lamp at the distal end of the instrument, while in the Otis urethroscope the light is placed at the proximal end of the instrument. In their stead, a head light and Klotz tube (Fig. 582) may be employed.

In addition to the urethroscope long slender applicators wrapped with cotton are necessary.

FIG. 582.—Klotz's urethral tube.

Asepsis.—The tube and applicators should be boiled, while the lamp may be immersed in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution and then in alcohol. The operator's hands should, of course, be sterile. The glans penis is washed with soap and water, and is then wiped with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The urethra is to be irrigated with a warm saturated solution of boric acid or 1 to 5000 potassium permanganate solution.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be upon a flat table in the recumbent position for anterior urethroscopy and in the lithotomy position for examination of the posterior urethra.

Anesthesia.—Cocain is not to be used if it can be avoided, as it alters the appearance of the mucous membrane somewhat and by deadening sensibility it conceals valuable information as to the condition of the canal. Hyperesthesia of the urethra, if present, may be lessened to a considerable degree by the passage of a full-sized sound once or twice before the intended examination by the urethroscope.

Technic.—A tube as large as will pass through the meatus should be used, as very little information is obtained by inspection through a small tube. If the meatus is abnormally small, it should be cut (see page 578). The patient voids his urine naturally just before the examination is begun. Before proceeding with the examination, the patient is instructed to tell the operator if any particular sensitive spot is encountered while the instrument is being passed. The penis is held vertically upward in the fingers of the left hand, and the tube, well warmed and lubricated, and with the obturator in place, is inserted through the meatus (Fig. 583), and thence onward until it meets an obstruction or reaches the bulbous urethra, provided the anterior portion of the canal only is to be examined. The obturator is then

removed, the light is turned on, and the instrument is slowly withdrawn, the mucous membrane being inspected the while, as it falls over the distal end of the tube (Fig. 584). If the prostatic urethra is to be inspected, the tube is inserted all the way into the bladder. This is accomplished by turning the instrument down between the thighs to an almost horizontal position as soon as its point reaches the bulbous urethra and, at the same time, making gentle upward pressure upon the point of the instrument by means of the fingers on the perineum. In this way the point of the instrument is made to pass through the opening in the triangular ligament. The tube is then gently pushed on into the bladder. Inserting a straight tube into the posterior urethra is

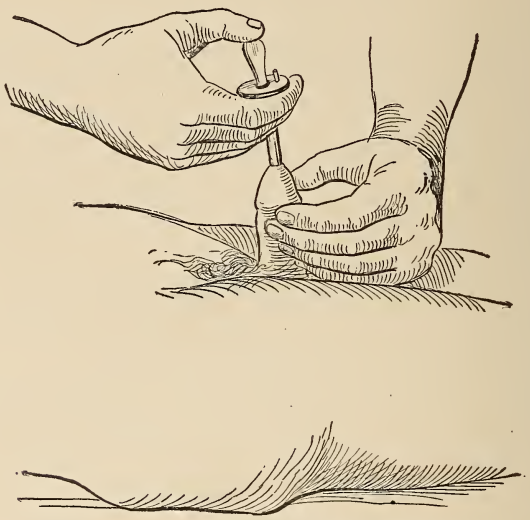


Fig. 583.—Method of inserting the urethroscope.

generally painful and it may not be possible without employing local anesthesia; introduction of the curved urethroscope is much less disagreeable for the patient.

As soon as the instrument is inserted to the desired depth, the obturator is removed, the light is turned on, and, as the tube is slowly withdrawn, the different portions of the mucous membrane are inspected as they appear in the end of the urethroscope. If a clear view of the mucous membrane is interfered with by blood or secretion collecting in the end of the tube, long applicators covered with cotton should be inserted through the instrument and the mucous membrane mopped dry; care should be taken not to push the tube back in the canal after

the examination has once begun without inserting the obturator, as the edges of the tube might cause damage to the parts.

Before one can become competent in recognizing pathological conditions it is necessary that the examiner should be acquainted with the normal appearance and color of the urethral mucous membrane. Beginning at the posterior urethra in a normal case the central figure appears as a cone, the mucous membrane, which is of a dark red color, being thrown into longitudinal folds. As the instrument

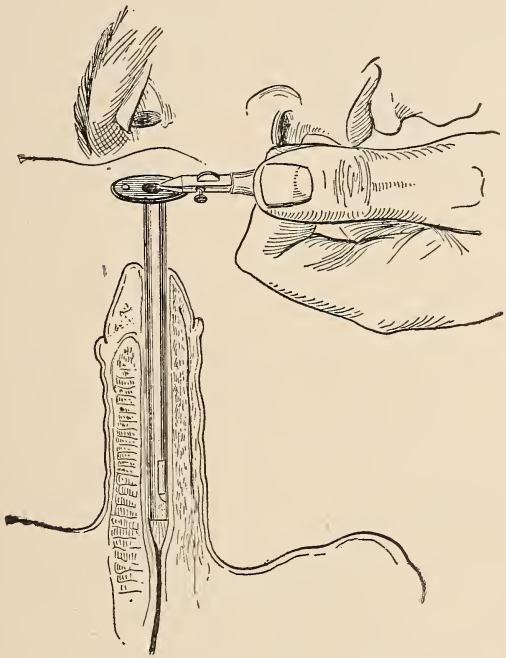


FIG. 584.—Showing the method of examining the anterior urethra through the urethroscope.

is withdrawn, the verumontanum comes to view in the form of a semilunar curve with the convexity upward (Fig. 585) and the mucous membrane appears of a bright red color. By slightly changing the position of the instrument, it is possible to obtain a view of the sinus pocularis and openings of the ejaculatory ducts (Fig. 586). Upon the further withdrawal of the instrument, the ridge of the verumontanum become gradually less marked and the mucous membrane takes on a paler hue. In the membranous urethra the central figure appears as a cone with a central dot, the mucous membrane extending out in radiating folds (Fig. 587). In the bulbous urethra the central figure changes to a vertical slit with the mucous membrane bulging on each

side (Fig. 588). In this portion of the canal the mucous membrane is still paler in color. The central figure then gradually changes from a vertical slit to a triangular opening (Fig. 589), and at the penoscrotal junction it takes the form of a transverse slit with radiating folds

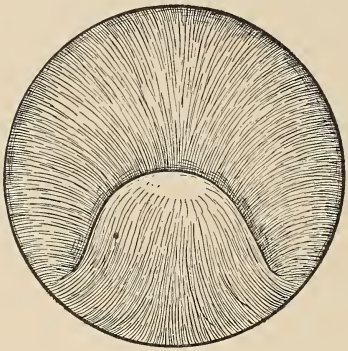


Fig. 585.

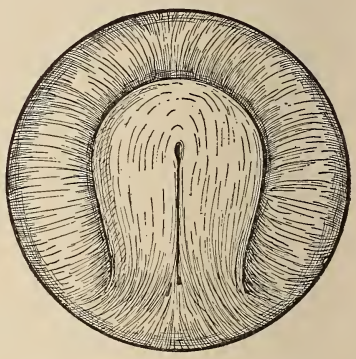


Fig. 586.

Fig. 585.—The appearance of the upper portion of the prostatic urethra. (After Stern.)
Fig. 586.—The appearance of the middle portion of the prostatic urethra. (After Stern.)

extending to the periphery (Fig. 590). In the pendulous urethra the central figure again becomes cone-shaped (Fig. 591) and, finally, at the meatus it appears as a vertical slit, the color of the mucous membrane changing from a pale pink to a purplish hue.

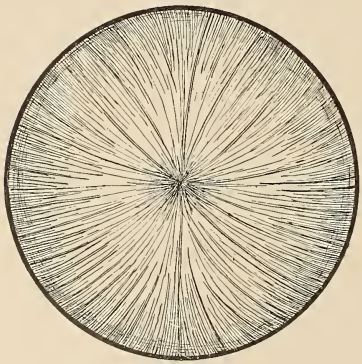


Fig. 587.

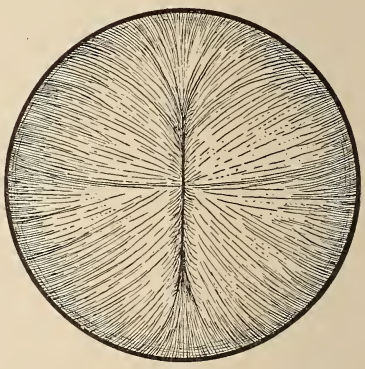


Fig. 588.

Fig. 587.—The appearance of the membranous uretha. (After Stern.)
Fig. 588.—The appearance of the bulbous urethra. (After Stern.)

In examining the urethra through the urethroscope it should be first ascertained whether the normal elasticity of the canal is impaired or not. This is accomplished by noting the central figure as the tube is withdrawn. In chronic inflammatory conditions the urethra

becomes more or less rigid and does not immediately collapse over the end of the urethroscope as it is withdrawn; instead, the cone-like central figure often becomes elongated or else distorted from being contracted at certain points, if the inflammation is a localized one,

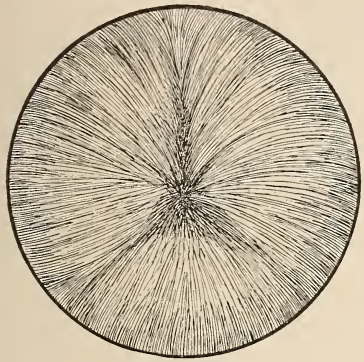


Fig. 589.

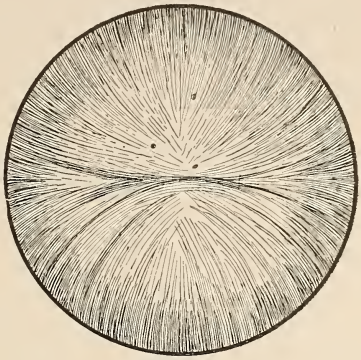


Fig. 590.

Fig. 589.—The appearance of the perineal portion of the spongy urethra. (After Stern.)
Fig. 590.—The appearance of the urethra at the penoscrotal junction. (After Stern.)

and, in addition, the whole mucous membrane in such cases not infrequently becomes of a paler hue than normal. Changes in the appearance of the mucous membrane should also be noted. In chronic urethritis there will at times be found localized congested areas, granular patches which frequently bleed, and superficial ulcera-

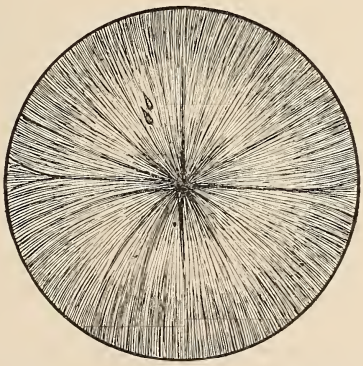


Fig. 591.—The appearance of the pendulous urethra. (After Stern.)

tions covered with secretion. Inflamed lacunæ appear as red openings upon the surface of the mucous membrane from which will frequently be seen exuding drops of pus. Retention cysts, polypi, etc., are readily diagnosed by this means. If, during the examination, it is

desired to more closely study the condition of the mucous membrane at any particular spot this may be accomplished by pushing that part into the field by digital compression upon the urethra below the end of the urethroscope.

After removal of the tube the anterior urethra should be irrigated with a warm saturated boric acid or normal salt solution, and, if the instrument has been passed into the deep urethra, the bladder should also be irrigated.

URETHROSCOPY IN THE FEMALE.

The female urethra being shorter and capable of greater distention than that of the male lends itself more readily to examination by the urethroscope.

Instruments.—Short male endoscopic tubes or a regular female urethroscope may be employed. They may be obtained with the light at the distal end or, as in the Kelly tubes (Fig. 592), with the

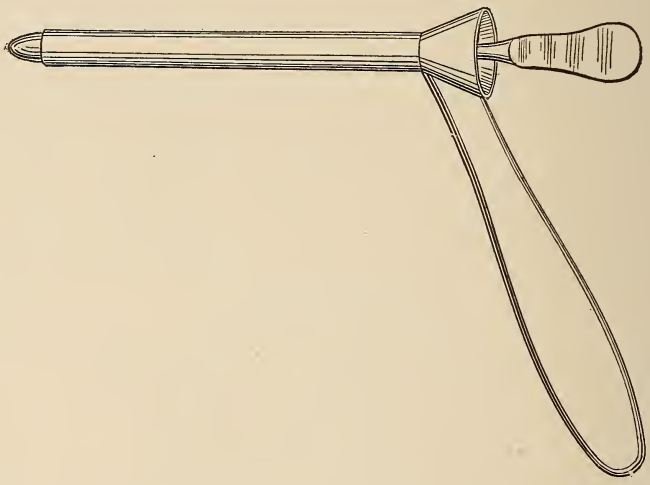


Fig. 592.—Kelly's urethral tube-speculum.

light reflected from a head mirror. The female urethroscope should be about 3 inches (7.6 cm.) long. The tubes vary in size anywhere from 24 to 36 French.

A Kelly cone-shaped urethral dilator (Fig. 593) should be provided for dilating the meatus. Applicators or alligator-jawed forceps and absorbent cotton will also be required.

Asepsis.—The tubes, applicators, etc., may be boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The lamp is sterilized by

immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution and then rinsed off in alcohol. The vulva and the external urethral orifice are sterilized by washing with tincture of green soap and water, next with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution, and finally with sterile water.

Position of Patient.—The dorsal posture is employed.

Anesthesia.—If the urethra is hyperesthetic, a small pledget of

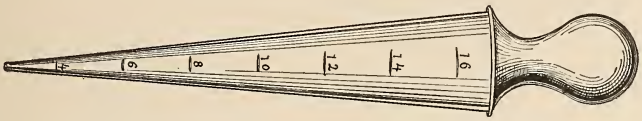


Fig. 593.—Kelly's cone-shaped urethral dilator. (Ashton.)

cotton saturated with a 2 per cent. solution of cocain is placed in the mouth of the urethra for a short time before the operation.

Technic.—The urine is voided naturally before the examination begins. If necessary, the meatus is dilated sufficiently to admit a good-sized tube by means of a Kelly dilator (Fig. 594). The instrument, with the obturator in place and well lubricated, is then inserted into

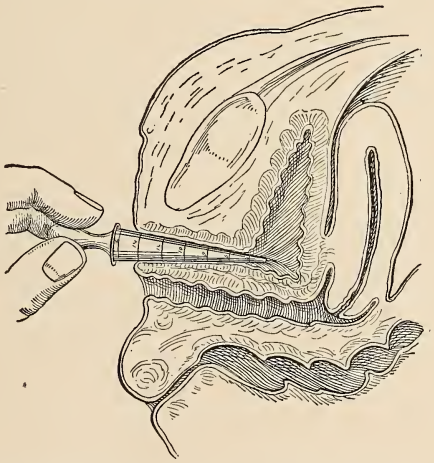


Fig. 594.—Showing the method of dilating the urethra. (Ashton.)

the mouth of the urethra and is carefully passed into the bladder (Fig. 595). The obturator is next removed and the lighting apparatus is properly adjusted. The instrument is then gradually withdrawn while the examiner notes the condition of the mucous membrane as it falls over the end of the tube (Fig. 596).

At the internal urethral orifice there appears through the urethro-

scope a large opening surrounded by a narrow ring of mucous membrane. As the instrument is withdrawn the central figure becomes first more oval and then lower down appears as a transverse slit with the mucous membrane thrown into folds that radiate to the periphery. Finally, at the external orifice the central figure appears as a vertical slit, while the mucous membrane appears thrown into a number of

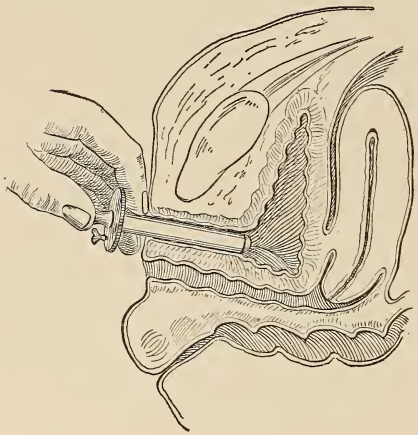


FIG. 595.

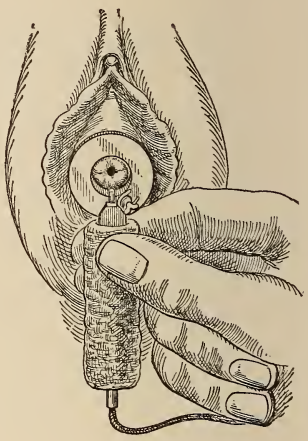


FIG. 596.

FIG. 595.—Introduction of the urethroscope into the female urethra. (Ashton.)
FIG. 596.—Showing the method of inspecting the female urethra through the urethroscope. (Ashton.)

radiating folds. A posterior fold is especially marked in the upper portion of the canal; it is a continuation of the trigone.

The points to be noted in the examination have been sufficiently dealt with under the technic of male urethroscopy and will not be repeated here.

Therapeutic Measures.

HAND INJECTIONS FOR THE URETHRA.

The injection of solutions into the anterior urethra by means of a small hand syringe is employed either for simple cleansing purposes in preparation for the passage of urethral instruments or for the purpose of treating anterior urethritis. The efficiency of injections in limiting acute gonorrhea is a question and it is doubtful if they have much effect outside of removing the irritating discharges and cleansing the mucous membrane. They may, however, be prescribed in the acute

stages in the form of mild antiseptic solutions to be used by the patient himself as an adjunct to irrigations carried out by the physician. In the declining stages of the disease or when the condition becomes chronic, astringent injections are of undoubted value in reducing the congestion and thus drying up the thin discharge that remains.

When injections are employed, certain precautions should be observed. In the first place, mild solutions are preferable to very strong ones, as being less harmful in not irritating the mucous membrane. They should not be strong enough to cause more than temporary pain or stinging, otherwise they are likely to do more harm than good. In the second place, the greatest gentleness in making the injection is necessary to avoid injuring the urethral mucous membrane Furthermore, while it is desirable that the solution should be brought into contact with all the folds and depressions of the mucous membrane, it is important that the fluid should not be injected into the bladder, which, however, rarely happens, as the cut-off muscle interposes a barrier. If it should occur, infective material will necessarily be carried back into the deep urethra with a good chance of starting up a posterior urethritis and epididymitis. For this reason, only a small quantity of fluid should be injected at a time and that without force. Used with these precautions, injections may be safely employed by the patient himself when desired.

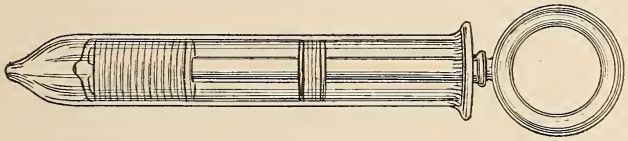


Fig. 597.—Urethral syringe.

The Syringe.—The best form of instrument for injections is a hand syringe with a capacity of about 3 drams (11 c.c.). It should be preferably of glass so that it can be sterilized by boiling. The nozzle should be cone-shaped (Fig. 597) that it may fit into the meatus, and it should be seen that it is perfectly smooth. Before using, the syringe should be tested to see that the piston moves easily and without any jerks. A basin should also be provided to receive the solution that flows back from the urethra.

Solutions Employed.—Many solutions with soothing, astringent, or antiseptic properties are employed, a few of which are given:

Sedative Injections.

℞.	Fl. ext. hydrastis,	♏xx–xxx (1.2–1.9 c.c.)
	Aquæ destil.,	℥i (30 c.c.)
℞.	Morph. sulph.,	gr. viii (0.52 gm.)
	Cocainæ,	gr. iv (0.26 gm.)
	Muc. acaciæ,	℥i (30 c.c.)
	Aquæ distil.,	q. s. ad ℥ii (60 c.c.)

Astringent Injections.

℞.	Zinci sulphatis,	gr. iv–viii (0.26–0.52 gm.)
	Aquæ distil.,	℥iv (120 c.c.)
℞.	Zinci sulphocarbolatis,	gr. vi–xii (0.4–0.78 gm.)
	Aquæ distil.,	℥iv (120 c.c.)
℞.	Plumbi acetatis,	gr. iv–xii (0.26–0.78 gm.)
	Aquæ distil.,	℥iv (120 c.c.)
℞.	Zinci chloridi,	gr. ii–iv (0.26–0.52 gm.)
	Aquæ,	℥iv (120 c.c.)
℞.	Zinci acetatis,	gr. i–xv (0.065–0.97 gm.)
	Aquæ rosæ,	℥i (30 c.c.)

Antiseptic Injections.

℞.	Sol. protargol,	0.25 to 1 per cent.
℞.	Sol. argyrol,	10%
℞.	Sol. potass. permanganat.,	1–5000 to 3000
℞.	Sol. bichlorid of mercury,	1–30,000

Temperature.—The solution should be used at about the temperature of the body.

Quantity.—Only sufficient quantity of the solution to distend the anterior urethra should be injected at a time. At first only about ʒi (3.75 c.c.) should be used at a time; later this may be increased to ʒiii (11 c.c.).

Frequency.—The injections should be used three to six times daily, depending upon the severity of the case. As the symptoms improve they may be given less frequently. It should be remembered, however, that in some cases after a time the continued use of injections may prevent a discharge from entirely disappearing, and it is necessary to stop them entirely for a week or more before a cure is obtained.

Position of Patient.—Injections may be given with the patient lying recumbent or sitting upon the edge of a chair.

Preparation.—The glans penis and the lips of the meatus should be washed off with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury.

Technic.—The patient urinates immediately before the injection is given so as to wash out as much of the discharge as is possible and also that he may not have to urinate soon afterward, thus allowing the solution to remain in contact with the urethra as long a time as

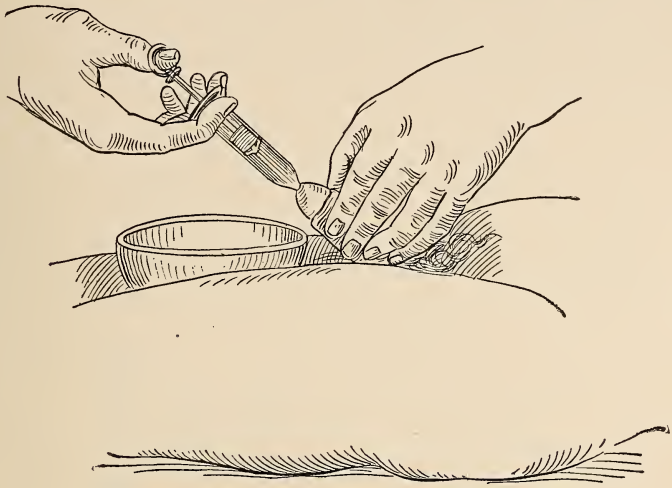


Fig. 598.—Method of giving a urethral injection.

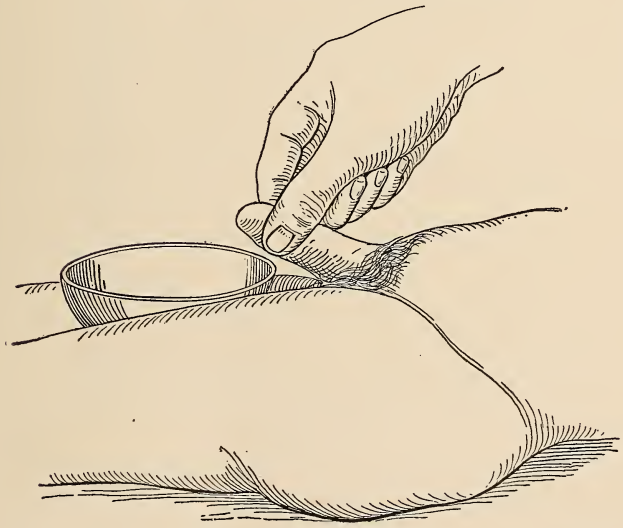


Fig. 599.—Second step in injection of the urethra, holding the solution in the urethra.

possible. The syringe is then filled with from 1 to 2 drams (3.75 to 7.50 c.c.) of solution, and any air is expelled by depressing the piston while the tip is elevated. The penis is held back of the corona between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand, while with the right hand

the nozzle of the syringe is inserted into the meatus, and the solution is gently injected into the urethra and immediately allowed to escape. A second syringeful of solution is then injected into the urethra until the latter is well distended (Fig. 598). The syringe is then removed and the meatus is held together for from three to five minutes so as to keep the solution in contact with the mucous membrane (Fig. 599). The solution is then allowed to run out into the receptacle provided for the purpose.

IRRIGATIONS OF THE URETHRA.

Irrigation of the urethra is accomplished by flushing out the canal with copious quantities of mild antiseptic solution. It is a method employed extensively in the treatment of acute gonorrhea. To be

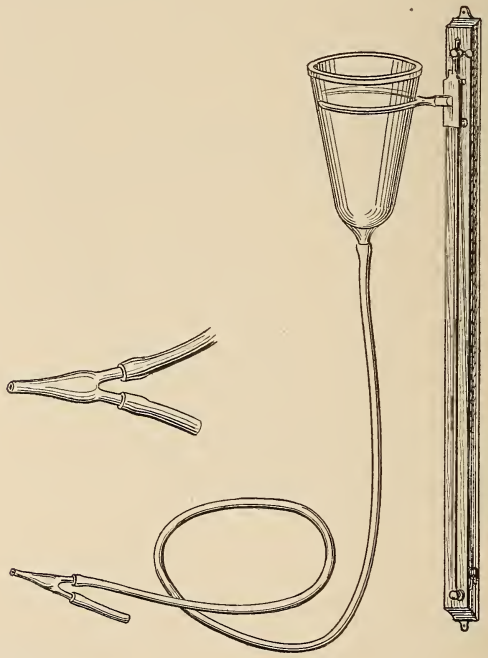


Fig. 600.—Valentine irrigator and Chetwood's urethral irrigating nozzle.

effective large quantities of fluid must be used and the urethra must be so distended that the solution comes in contact with all recesses and folds in the mucous membrane.

It is claimed that under the irrigation method of treatment, properly employed, the intensity of the symptoms is much lessened and the duration of the attack shortened. On the other hand, many authori-

ties oppose this form of treatment on the ground that it increases the dangers of prostatic infection and that the virulence of the infection is increased. If gentleness is observed and the precaution is taken not to give the anterior injection under too great pressure, that is, not to force the solution into the bladder, as is so frequently done, the danger of setting up complications is slight. It is not a method of treatment, however, that can be placed in the hands of the patient, but it should always be carried out by the physician. Both the anterior and the posterior urethra may be irrigated.

Apparatus.—An irrigating reservoir that can be raised or lowered to any desired height at will, such as Valentine's, a Chetwood two-way blunt glass urethral nozzle, a waste-pail, and two pieces of rubber tubing, one about 8 feet (240 cm.) long for connecting the inflow with the irrigator and another, a short piece, leading from the outflow tube to the waste-pail, are required for anterior irrigations.

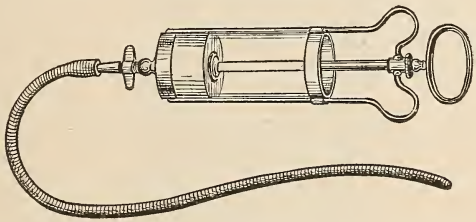


FIG. 601.—Syringe and catheter for irrigating the posterior urethra.

For irrigating the posterior urethra a No. 12 to 18 French soft-rubber catheter with a smooth beveled eye, and a large glass syringe (Fig. 601) should be provided.

Solutions.—Mild antiseptic solutions are employed. Those most frequently used are:

Permanganate of potash,	1–6000 to 1–4000
Bichlorid of mercury,	1–30,000 to 1–10,000
Silver nitrate,	1–12,000 to 1–8000

Temperature.—The solutions should be used at about the body temperature.

Quantity.—About a quart (1 liter) of solution should be used in an anterior irrigation.

For posterior irrigations from 4 to 12 ounces (118 to 355 c.c.) of solution are employed.

Frequency.—Early in the disease, when the discharge is free, two daily irrigations give the best results. Later, one irrigation a day is sufficient.

Height of Reservoir.—The reservoir should not be raised above 4 feet (120 cm.). Such an elevation will give all the necessary distention of the urethra without forcing the solution beyond the anterior urethra. If it produces pain, the pressure should be lessened by lowering the reservoir or partially pinching off the inflow tube.

Position of Patient.—For anterior irrigations the patient may stand or be seated upon the edge of a chair, while for a posterior irrigation the patient should be lying down.

Preparation of Patient.—For protecting the clothes the patient should wear a rubber apron in which is provided an opening for the penis (Fig. 602). The glans penis and lips of the meatus should be

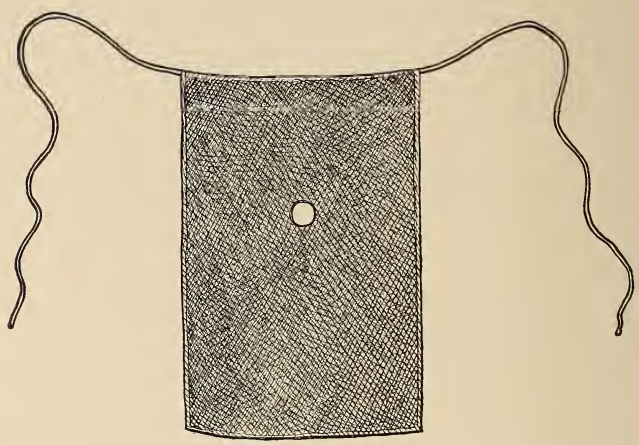


Fig. 602.—Apron for protecting the patient during a urethral irrigation.

washed off with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Technic.—1. *Anterior Irrigations.*—The patient should empty his bladder before each treatment. The operator holds the penis behind the glans between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand and, compressing the rubber inflow tube between the thumb and index-finger of the right hand, inserts the glass nozzle into the meatus. He then releases the inflow tube, at the same time closing the outflow tube by means of his right little finger. As soon as the urethra is filled with solution the inflow tube is again pinched, at the same time removing the little finger and thus opening the outflow tube. By thus alternately opening or shutting the inflow tube, and at the same time shutting or opening the outflow, the urethra is alternately distended with solution and emptied without the necessity of removing the nozzle. It takes

about five minutes to thus irrigate the urethra with 1 quart (1 liter) of solution.

2. *Posterior Irrigations.*—The anterior urethra is first irrigated as

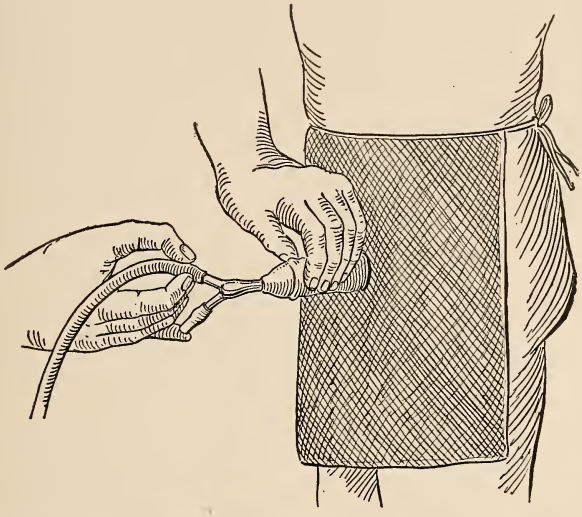


Fig. 603.—Method of giving an anterior urethral irrigation.

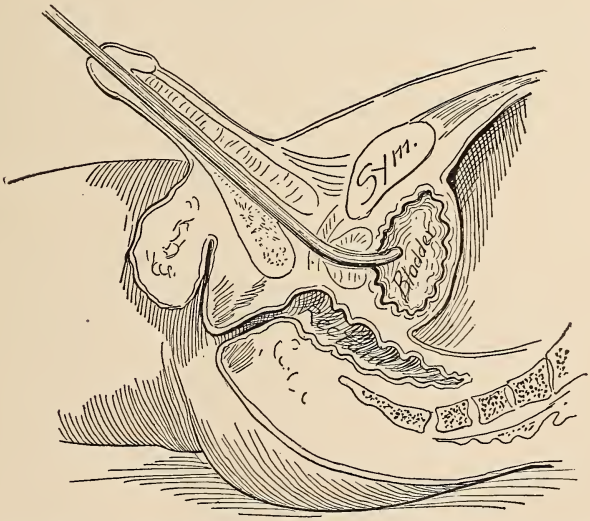


Fig. 604.—First step in irrigating the posterior urethra. Catheter is inserted into the bladder until urine begins to flow.

just described. A No. 12 to 18 French catheter, well lubricated with one of the Iceland-moss preparations, is then inserted into the urethra with the eye upward until urine just escapes (Fig. 604). After the

bladder is emptied, the catheter is then withdrawn 1 inch (2.5 cm.) until its point lies in the prostatic urethra and from 4 to 12 ounces (118 to 355 c.c.) of the antiseptic solution are gently injected (Fig. 605). The posterior urethra is thus washed backward toward the bladder.

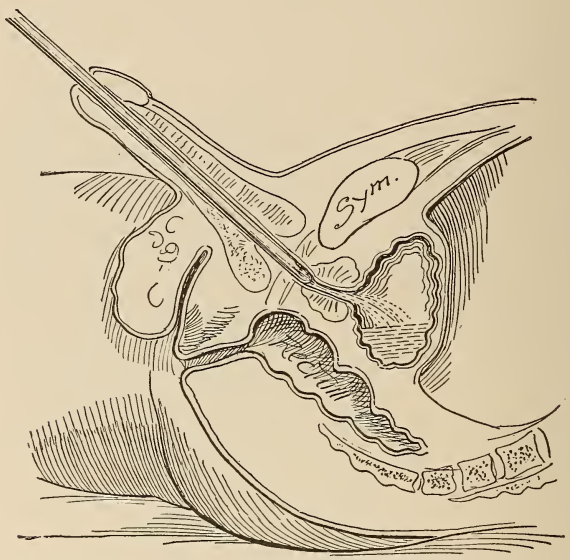


Fig. 605.—Second step in irrigating the posterior urethra. The catheter is withdrawn until its tip lies in the deep urethra and the solution is then injected.

The catheter is then removed and the patient is instructed to void the contents of his bladder, thus giving a final washing from behind forward to both posterior and anterior urethræ.

INSTILLATIONS.

Instillations are employed when it is desired to medicate the urethra with small quantities of strong solutions. They are indicated in chronic gonorrhea, but should not be used in acute cases; they are specially useful in chronic posterior urethritis. The object of such injections is to induce a hyperemia of the tissues; that is, to substitute an acute inflammation in place of the chronic one with the hope that it will be followed by absorption of the old as well as the new products of inflammation and by a return to normal. It is a method that may be applied to the anterior or posterior urethra. Instillations should not be employed in cases where injections or irrigations of weak solutions are followed by irritation, and they should likewise be avoided in posterior urethritis when the prostate and seminal vesicles are the seat of an

acute inflammation. Instillations are also valuable in the treatment of sexual neurasthenia when inflammatory lesions are present in the posterior urethra.

The Syringe.—While the instillation may be given by means of a flexible catheter and small syringe, a special instrument, such as Keyes' modification of the Ultzmann syringe (Fig. 606), will be found more satisfactory. The latter consists of a long curved nozzle of silver, provided with a central opening, to the proximal end of which is attached a large hypodermic syringe with the piston graduated in minims.

Fig. 606.—Keyes-Ultzmann instillation syringe.

Asepsis.—The syringe should be sterilized by boiling for five minutes in a 1 per cent. solution of sodium carbonate. The glans penis and meatus are then washed with warm water and soap, followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Solutions Employed.—In using irrigations it is well to start with a weak solution, employing it till the urethra becomes tolerant, and then to gradually increase the strength. The solutions most frequently made use of are:

Silver nitrate,	0.5 to 2 per cent.
Thallin sulphate,	3 to 10 per cent.
Copper sulphate,	1 to 4 per cent.
Protargol,	0.25 to 10 per cent.
Ichthyol,	2 to 10 per cent.

Temperature.—The solution should be given at about the temperature of the body—say 100° F.

Quantity.—Ten to twenty minims (0.6 to 1.25 c.c.) solution are injected at a time.

Frequency.—Instillations may be given at from forty-eight- to seventy-two-hour intervals. As a general rule, a second injection is not to be given until all irritation from the first has subsided.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be lying down upon a bed or table.

Technic.—1. *Posterior Instillations.*—The patient should void his urine previous to the instillation, and the anterior urethra is first cleansed by an injection of weak antiseptic solution. The syringe, filled with the desired amount of solution, and with the nozzle well lubricated with some nonoily lubricant, as one of the Iceland-moss preparations, is carefully introduced in the same manner as one would pass a sound (page 540) until its point lies behind the compressor urethræ muscle in the membranous urethra (Fig. 607). This will be

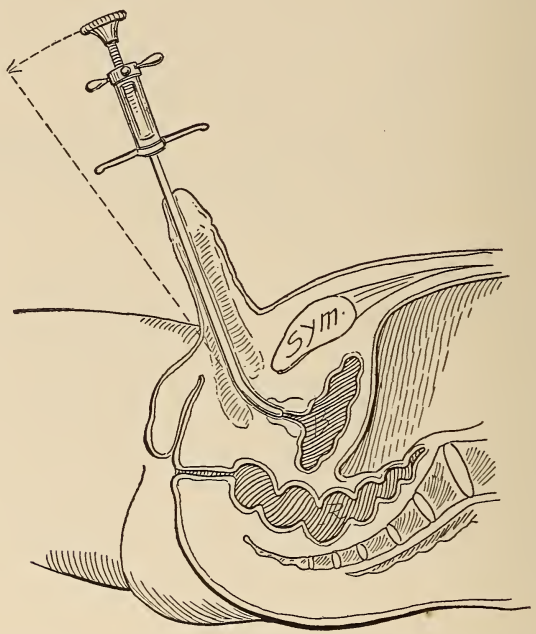


Fig. 607.—Showing the syringe in position for a deep urethral instillation.

at a distance of about 5 1/2 to 6 inches (14 to 15 cm.) from the meatus or roughly when the shaft of the instrument is at an angle of 45 degrees with the horizon. From 5 to 20 drops (0.3 to 1.25 c.c.) of solution are then slowly injected. Care must be taken in removing the nozzle of the instrument to avoid having any solution drip from the point along the anterior urethra. To avoid this, the piston of the syringe should be withdrawn slightly before the nozzle is removed.

Generally there is considerable burning upon urination following a posterior instillation and at times there may be pain and tenesmus and some discharge during the first twenty-four hours. As a rule, these symptoms subside within six to twenty-four hours. If the reaction is severe, however, the patient should remain quietly in bed

and an opium suppository should be introduced into the rectum and heat applied to the perineum.

2. *Anterior Instillations.*—In giving an anterior instillation the same preparations are followed as for a posterior instillation. The nozzle of the instrument, well lubricated, is then carefully introduced as far as the bulb of the urethra and about 20 drops (1.25 c.c.) of solution are injected. The solution follows the instrument as it is withdrawn, medicating the whole anterior urethra. A piece of cotton should be placed over the glans and worn for a few hours to prevent any excess of solution escaping from the meatus and soiling the patient's clothing. The cotton may be readily secured in place by means of a *loose-fitting* elastic band placed behind the corona.

APPLICATION OF OINTMENTS TO THE URETHRA.

Astringent and stimulating ointments are at times employed in the treatment of chronic urethritis instead of instillations. They are considered by some authorities more efficient than the use of drugs in solution, as being more penetrating and more lasting in effect.

Fig. 608.—Cupped sound.

Instruments.—Ointments may be applied to the whole urethra, in which case an ordinary sound or a cupped sound (Fig. 608) is employed, or they may be brought into any particular area by means of Tomasoli's or some other form of ointment syringe (Fig. 609). This latter in-

Fig. 609.—Urethral ointment syringe.

strument consists of a hollow curved catheter-like nozzle and a plunger for forcing the ointment out at the end.

Formulary.—Unna's ointment for use with sounds consists of:

℞.	Ol. cocæ,	℥iii (89 c.c.)
	Ceræ flav.,	ʒss (1.95 gm.)
	Argent. nitratis,	gr. xv (0.97 gm.)
	Bals. peruviani,	ʒss (1.9 c.c.) M.

The mixture is melted over a hot-water bath and the sound is then dipped into it and the ointment is permitted to solidify by cooling.

Finger's ointment consists of:

℞.	Argent. nitratis or cu. sulphatis,	gr. xv (0.97 gm.)
	Ol. olivæ,	ʒiss (5.6 c.c.)
	Lanolin,	℥iii (89 c.c.) M.

Another consists of:

℞.	Pot. iodidi,	ʒss (1.95 gm.)
	Iodi. pur.,	gr. v (0.32 gm.)
	Ol. olivæ,	ʒss (1.9 c.c.)
	Lanolin,	℥i (30 c.c.) M.

Preparations.—The patient's bladder should be empty. The glans penis and meatus are washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution, and the urethra is cleansed by an injection or irrigation.

Technic.—When a sound is employed, as large a one as will comfortably pass the meatus is coated with the ointment, or if a cupped sound is used, the depressions are filled with the ointment, and it is passed through the urethra and is left in place about five minutes. The ointment melts and thus medicates the entire urethral mucous membrane.

In employing a special ointment carrier the instrument is partly filled with the ointment and, after being well lubricated, it is passed as far as the diseased area. The piston is then inserted and is pushed through the instrument forcing the ointment out the end into the urethra.

THE URETHROSCOPE IN THE TREATMENT OF URETHRAL DISEASES.

By means of the urethroscope or an open wire speculum (Fig. 610) lesions in the urethra may be accurately located and efforts at treatment can be thus focused on the exact seat of the disease. Endoscopic treatment is thus of great value in the presence of localized lesions of the urethra which, resisting the ordinary methods of treatment by irrigations, instillations, etc., are often the cause of a persistent gleety discharge. For example, through the urethoscope and by the aid of suitable instruments, strong applications may be made to granular patches, erosions, and ulcerations; suppurating glands or follicles

may be incised and small growths may be removed from the canal under direct vision.

The technic of using the urethroscope has previously been fully described (page 553) so that the application of the instrument to the treatment of various urethral conditions will simply be outlined in a general way. As has been already emphasized in previous pages, it is essential that one should be familiar with the normal appearance of the urethra before attempts to employ the instrument for treatment are

Fig. 610.—Open wire urethral speculum.

made. Furthermore, the greatest gentleness in manipulation is necessary to avoid injury to parts already diseased.

In the treatment of congested and granular patches, erosions, and ulcerations local applications of silver nitrate or copper sulphate may be made by means of cotton-wrapped probes through the urethroscope previously passed to the seat of the disease. In this way strong solutions of these drugs—30 to 60 gr. (1.95 to 3.9 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.)—which would be extremely irritating if applied to the whole

Fig. 611.—Urethral probe.

mucous membrane, may be applied. If the diseased areas are numerous and extensive the strength of the applications should be somewhat weaker—say 5 or 10 gr. (0.32 to 0.65 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.). When using the stronger solutions, care should be taken to make the application exactly to the diseased area and not to leave any excess of solution to run over the healthy mucous membrane. Such applications should not be made too frequently—not oftener than once a week—as usually an acute urethritis, often accompanied by a bloody

discharge, is set up. This, as a rule, subsides in twenty-four to forty-eight hours.

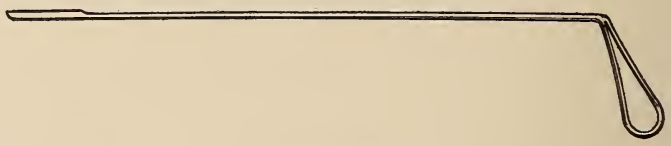


Fig. 612.—Urethral knife.

Areas of induration may be incised through the urethroscope by means of a urethral knife (Fig. 612). Two or 3 drops of a 4 per cent.

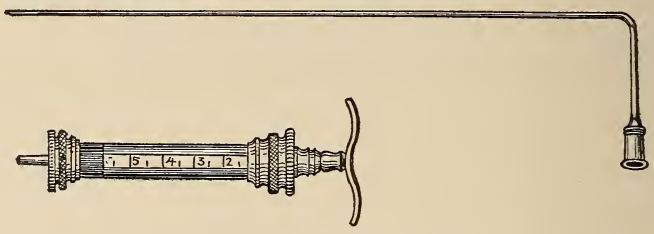


Fig. 613.—Kollman's urethral syringe.

solution of cocain with adrenalin chlorid should be applied to the diseased area by means of a cotton-wrapped probe, and the incision may

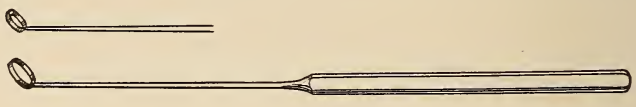


Fig. 614.—Urethral curet.

then be made without pain. In the same manner abscesses of Littré's glands or inflamed follicles may be opened. A discharging crypt or

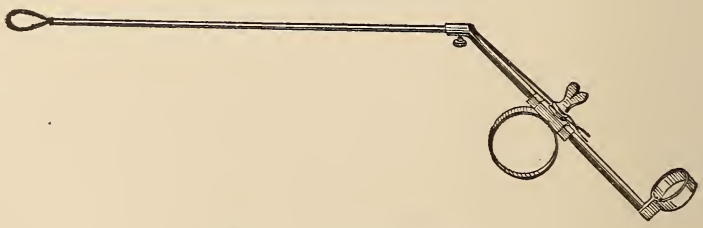


Fig. 615.—Urethral snare.

follicle may be injected every few days with a few drops of a peroxid of hydrogen solution by means of Kollman's syringe and cannula

(Fig. 613). Polyps and papillomata may be removed by a urethral curet (Fig. 614) or by caustics. If pedunculated, a wire snare (Fig. 615) or the galvanocautery snare may be employed. In any case the area of operation should be first cocainized in the manner above described.

THE DIRECT APPLICATION OF COLD TO THE URETHRA BY THE PSYCHROPHORE.

In the treatment of spermatorrhea and sexual neurasthenia where the urethra is congested or hyperesthetic the direct application of cold to the deep urethra by means of the cold-water sound or psychrophore is often of value. An ordinary cold sound is also employed in treating such conditions, but is not so effective, as the instrument soon becomes warm from contact with the urethra. With the psychrophore it is possible to keep a continuous cold application in the urethra as long as is desired.

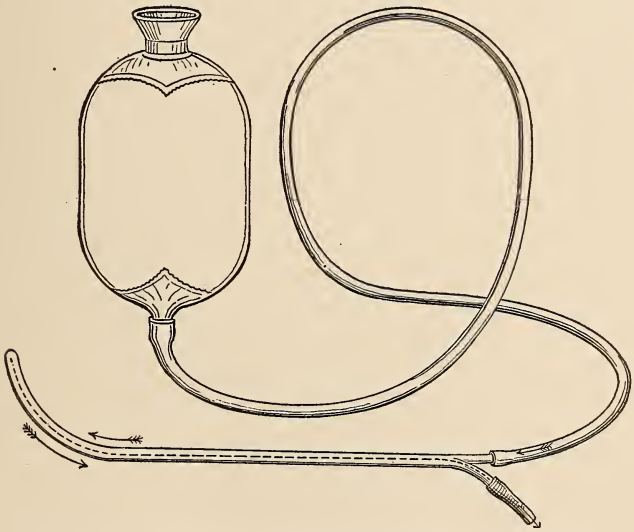


FIG. 616.—Apparatus for applying cold water to the urethra.

Apparatus.—The psychrophore is a double-current closed sound within the outer sheath of which are two canals, one for the inflow of cold water and the other for the outflow, which communicate near the terminal end of the instrument, thus permitting that portion of the instrument to be kept cold. The inflow canal is connected with a rubber tube leading from a douche bag or irrigating jar (Fig. 616).

Temperature.—The temperature of the water should be about 50° to 40° F. to start with. As the urethra grows more tolerant the temperature may be lowered.

Duration of Treatments.—The sound should be left in place for from five to ten minutes at a sitting.

Frequency.—Treatments may be given daily or on alternate days.

Technic.—An instrument as large as the normal caliber of the urethra should be used. It is well lubricated and gently inserted in the same manner as a sound (page 540) until the curved portion lies in the membranous and prostatic portions of the urethra. The tubing from the reservoir is then connected with the inflow canal and a current of cold water is allowed to pass through the instrument, escaping from the outflow canal into a basin provided for the purpose. In this way the hyperesthetic urethra is exposed to the mechanical effect of the sound and the sedative action of cold.

PROSTATIC MASSAGE.

Massage of the prostate gland by means of the finger in the rectum is frequently employed, and with good results, in the treatment of chronic prostatitis in which the inflammation extends deep in the gland tissue. The object is to squeeze out of the prostate into the posterior urethra as much as possible of the purulent contents of the gland and to cause absorption of the products of inflammation from indurated areas. It is also used for the purpose of emptying the distended seminal vesicles and hastening resolution. It should not be employed in acute prostatitis or acute vesiculitis, and care should be taken not to perform the massage too vigorously, otherwise the tissues will be bruised and the inflammation will be made worse.

Duration of Treatment.—The massage should be carried out for two or three minutes at a sitting.

Frequency.—Unless followed by irritation, treatments may be given once every four or five days.

Position of Patient.—The operation may be performed with the patient bending forward over a chair or in the knee-chest position.

Technic.—If possible, the patient's bladder should be full. The operator wears a rubber glove on the right hand or a finger cot on his right index-finger and, after lubricating the index-finger well, introduces it into the rectum (Fig. 617), carrying the finger high up on one side over the seminal vesicle. Firm but gentle pressure is then made with the finger over the seminal vesicle and the finger is slowly drawn

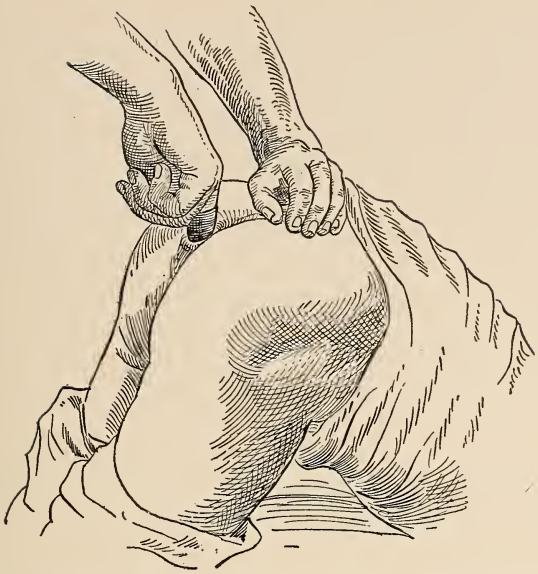


Fig. 617.—Position of the patient and method of introducing the finger into the rectum in prostatic massage.

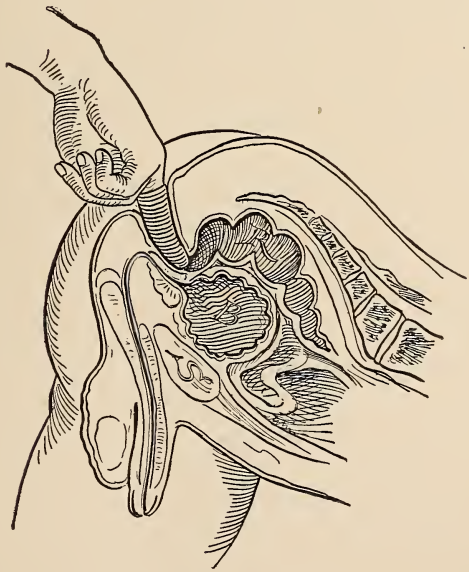


Fig. 618.—Showing the method of massaging the prostate.

down over the vesicle toward its duct and also over the corresponding lobe of the prostate (Fig. 618). This procedure is then repeated upon the opposite side, and finally over the central portion of the gland. All portions of the gland are thus massaged, but special attention should be paid to those portions that are enlarged or diseased.

After completing the massage the patient urinates, thus emptying the bladder of pus and débris squeezed out by the massage.

MEATOTOMY.

Meatotomy consists in dividing a narrow meatus. It may be required as a preliminary to the passage of large instruments into the urethra or bladder and in the presence of urethral inflammation, when the size of the meatus is such that free drainage is interfered with. If properly performed, it is an operation without danger.

Instruments.—The incision is best made with an Otis meatome (Fig. 619) or with an ordinary blunt-pointed straight bistoury.

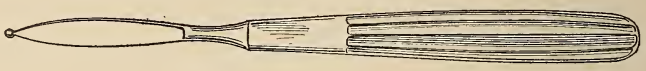


FIG. 619.—Otis' meatome.

Location of Incision.—The meatus should be cut exactly in the median line upon the *floor* of the urethra.

Preparations.—The glans penis and meatus should be washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The anterior urethra should be irrigated with a saturated boric acid solution.

Anesthesia.—To render the operation painless the line of proposed incision is infiltrated with a 0.1 per cent. solution of cocain introduced through the frenum or, if desired, by the topical application of a weak cocain solution (see page 76).

Technic.—The operator retracts the foreskin and, steadying the penis between the thumb and forefinger of his left hand, inserts the knife, with the cutting-edge down, into the urethra for a distance of 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.). The meatus is then incised exactly in the mid-line by drawing the knife out. To allow for subsequent contraction it is well to incise the canal to a size larger than is desired to permanently maintain it—a meatus that will give passage to a No. 30 F. sound is sufficiently enlarged. If it is found upon inserting an instrument that the constriction has not been entirely cut, any remaining bands should be divided.

At first there may be some hemorrhage from the incision, but this can usually be controlled by inserting a plug of gauze for an inch (2.5 cm.) or so without the meatus. Each time the patient urinates this plug is removed and a fresh one inserted. Should the bleeding be severe, the incision should be grasped between the thumb and forefinger placed on either side of the frenum and should be compressed until the hemorrhage stops.

The After-treatment.—This consists in passing a full-sized straight sound through the meatus, at first daily and then every second day for a week or ten days, otherwise the narrowing is apt to reform. When meatotomy is performed as a preliminary to instrumental examination, the exploration may be performed at the same sitting.

THE TREATMENT OF STRICTURES BY INSTRUMENTAL DILATATION.

The methods of treatment applicable to organic stricture of the urethra include gradual dilatation, continuous dilatation, and cutting the stricture either from within—internal urethrotomy—or from without—external urethrotomy. Two other methods, namely, divulsion and electrolysis, which are sometimes described in text-books, are now practically obsolete. Divulsion is so dangerous that it has been abandoned, while electrolysis is an operation that is of doubtful benefit and has never found much favor.

Intermittent dilatation of strictures by the passage of instruments of increasing size should be the method of choice when possible, as, if properly performed, it is without danger. It is, of course, only applicable to strictures which are permeable, but a large proportion of such may be successfully treated by this method. It is especially suited to those strictures which are fairly recent, soft, and dilatable. For old strictures with considerable scar tissue formation, which are rigid and unyielding, attempts at dilatation are apt to fail, so, if after a fair trial of the method in these cases it does not give results, more radical means of treatment should be substituted. Again, intermittent dilatation is not apt to be successful when applied to the so-called resilient strictures; these, while dilatable, are so elastic that they recontract between treatments and little, if any, advance is made beyond a certain point. Strictures which are irritable, that is, those in which attempts at dilatation are followed by pain and spasm resulting in retention of urine, those in which the passage of instruments is followed by chills and fever, those complicated by numerous false passages and

suppurating fistulous tracts, and all strictures near the meatus should be cut. For strictures complicated by cystitis, intermittent dilatation is likewise undesirable on account of the dangers of pyelonephritis; these require cutting of the stricture and free drainage of the bladder.

Before making any attempt to treat strictures, the number of strictures, their exact location, their size, and their extent should be determined by instrumental exploration of the urethra, and sufficient time for the tissues to react—at least seventy-two hours—should elapse after such an examination before the dilatation is begun. Strictures may occur at any point in the canal except in the prostatic urethra, but the most frequent sites are: (1) in the region of the bulbomembranous junction, (2) within 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) of the meatus, and (3) near the penoscrotal junction. They may be single or multiple, and in shape annular or tortuous. The opening is seldom situated in the center of the stricture, but generally lies to one side of the median line of the urethra.

All strictures have a tendency to contract and in time cause more or less impediment to the urinary flow with serious results to the whole urinary tract. The urethra immediately behind the stricture is the first to feel the effects of this obstruction and the canal at this point becomes more or less dilated and the mucous membrane is thinned out. Urine collects in this dilated portion and decomposes, with the result that an inflammation is set up accompanied by a gleety discharge. This may in time go on to ulceration and extravasation of urine with the formation of false passages and fistulæ. The effect of the urinary obstruction is also felt upon the bladder. It first hypertrophies and may later become thinned and dilated, and it is not uncommonly the seat of cystitis. In time inflammation and dilatation of the ureters and kidney follow, resulting in pyelitis and pyelonephritis.

Mention is made of these complications because their presence, or absence, and severity, if present, are of direct practical importance in determining the method of treatment to pursue. It should further be borne in mind that the stricture itself is usually congested and the mucous membrane is softened and inflamed, so that *in performing dilatation the greatest care and gentleness are necessary to avoid lacerating and contusing the already irritated tissues.* Roughness or carelessness in introducing the instrument can do only harm. The beneficial effects of dilatation depend not only upon the mechanical distention to which the urethra is subjected, but also upon the simple presence of the instrument which stimulates the tissues to a mild reactionary hyperemia, which is accompanied by softening and absorption

of the scar tissue. If more than this is done, that is, if the tissues are so irritated that an inflammation is induced, the value of the treatment is lost and the original trouble is simply aggravated.

Instruments.—For strictures above No. 15 French conical steel

Fig. 620.—Conical steel sound.

sounds of a proper curve are employed. These may be of the style shown in Fig. 620, or those with a double taper (Fig. 621) may be used. The latter instrument has a slight advantage in that, the shaft being smaller than the shoulder, dilatation of the deeper parts is effected

Fig. 621.—Double-taper steel sound.

without unduly stretching the meatus. For strictures in the pendulous urethra in front of the bulb a straight conical sound (Fig. 622) may be employed; such an instrument should not be used, however, in the deep urethra.

Fig. 622.—Straight steel sound.

With small steel instruments there is a considerable chance of making a false passage and always the danger of inflicting traumatism, so that for strictures of a smaller size than No. 15 French, soft instruments should be employed. Flexible olivary bougies (Fig. 623) are

Fig. 623.—Flexible urethral bougie.

the best in this class of cases, as they find their way through the stricture with greater ease and there is less danger of making a false passage. They are made of woven material covered with rubber and the best are of French make.

For dilating tight strictures whalebone filiform bougies and tunneled sounds (Fig. 624) should be provided. The filiforms should be at least 18 inches (45 cm.) long and of such size that the tunneled sounds will easily slip over them. Care should be taken not to use rough or split filiforms. In fact, any instrument, no matter what the variety, must be perfectly smooth and sound; imperfect instruments should be discarded as unsafe.

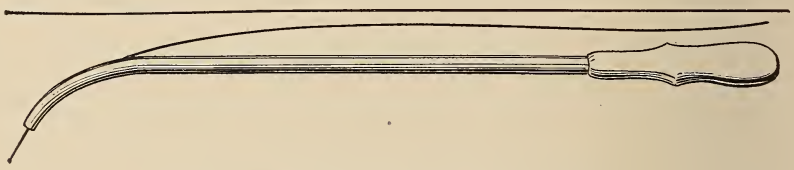


Fig. 624.—Gouley tunneled sound and filiform.

Asepsis.—The strictest asepsis should be observed in regard to the instruments used. Metal instruments should be boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. solution of sodium carbonate. Filiforms and the newer gum-elastic instruments will stand moderate boiling. They may also be sterilized by formaldehyd vapor, after which they should be well rinsed in sterile water; or they can be immersed first in a 1 to 20 carbolic solution and then in a saturated solution of boric acid.

The glans and meatus should be washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The urethra is irrigated both before and after each treatment with a saturated solution of boric acid or a 1 to 5000 permanganate of potash solution, and, if the bladder is infected, it should likewise be irrigated, provided the stricture is sufficiently large to admit a catheter.

The same regard to cleanliness should also apply to the operator's hands.

Rapidity of Dilatation.—This can only be determined by a study of the individual case. It is important, however, not to do too much dilating at a time. It should not be carried to a point where discomfort or pain is caused. If the stretching is too rapid, it practically amounts to divulsion with its attendant risks of inflammation and sepsis. Furthermore, tearing of the stricture results in new formation of tissue which in turn contracts. In the case of tight strictures the introduction of a second instrument after the first is sufficient. In other cases the dilatation may be carried further, using three or four instruments in all.

Frequency of Treatment.—After the passage of an instrument a reactionary hyperemia sets in and this should be given time to subside

before instruments are reintroduced. A lapse of three to seven days should, therefore, occur between treatments—on an average an interval of about five days. One will be guided, however, partly by the amount of contraction that takes place between treatments and also by the toleration of the urethra. Instruments should never be passed so frequently as to produce irritation. Very contractile strictures require short intervals between the treatments, while for those that are easily dilated and do not readily reform longer intervals can be employed. After the stricture has been stretched to 28 or 30 French, the intervals between the treatments may be increased, at first to once a week, then once or twice a month, and finally to several times a year.

Extent of Dilatation.—There is no fixed rule to be followed as to the extent to which a stricture is to be dilated. Various scales have been devised for determining the approximate size of the urethra from comparison with the circumference of the penis, but they are not accurate. As a general rule, dilatation of the stricture to the size of the meatus, provided it is of normal caliber, is sufficient.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal position with his shoulders slightly raised and thighs a little flexed and rotated outward. The operator takes his place just above the patient's hips and facing toward the patient's body, upon whichever side is most convenient for him.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia is only necessary where the patient is nervous and the urethra hyperesthetic, or upon the first passage of a sound after urethrotomy, as properly introduced instruments should ordinarily cause no pain. In such cases the urethra is well distended with a 0.2 per cent. solution of cocain and adrenalin solution and the solution is confined in the urethra for fifteen minutes by holding the meatus closed.

Technic. 1. *Large Strictures.*—Under this heading will be considered strictures above 15 French in size. A sound of a size that will easily pass through the stricture—determined by previous exploration—is warmed, well lubricated with lubrichondrin or other Iceland-moss preparation, and is *very gently* introduced in the following manner: The operator grasps the penis behind the corona between the ring-and middle fingers of the left hand and with the thumb and index-fingers of the same hand he retracts the foreskin and separates the lips of the meatus. The sound is grasped lightly between the thumb and first two fingers of the right hand and is carefully inserted into the urethra. At this stage the handle of the instrument should be parallel to the abdominal wall and in line with the folds of the groin (Fig. 625). As the sound

is pushed onward and downward, the handle of the instrument is gradually swept to the center line (Fig. 626) and is then slowly raised to a perpendicular so that its beak passes beneath the pubic arch (Fig. 627)

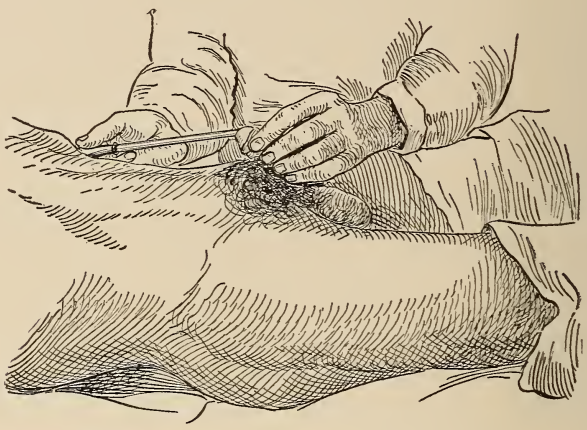


Fig. 625.—First step in passing a sound.

into the membranous urethra. Unless the stricture be in the deep urethra, it is not necessary to insert the sound into the bladder—the instrument should simply be passed through the stricture. To insert

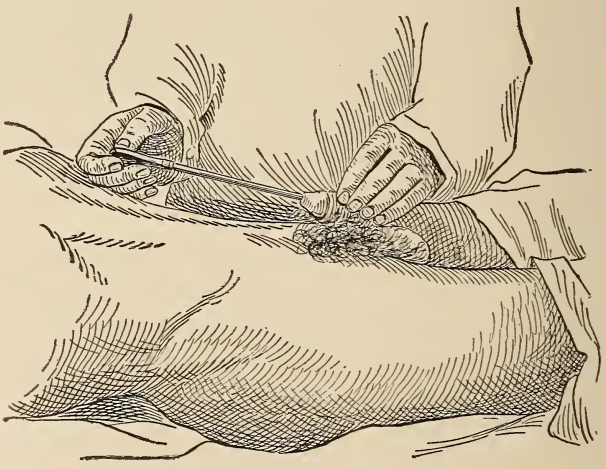


Fig. 626.—Second step in passing a sound.

the instrument the full distance, the handle is brought forward and downward between the thighs (Fig. 628). When the point of the sound reaches the stricture, the utmost gentleness in manipulation

should be used in engaging it in the stricture, and no attempt to enforce the instrument along should be made, until it is certain that its

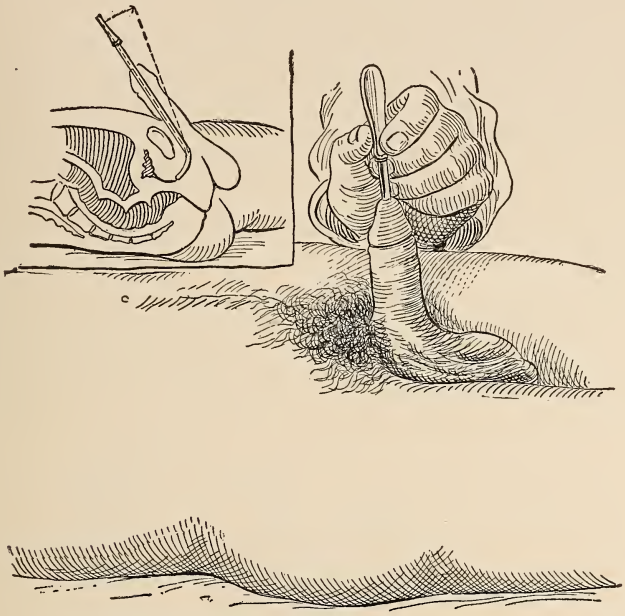


FIG. 627.—Third step in passing a sound.

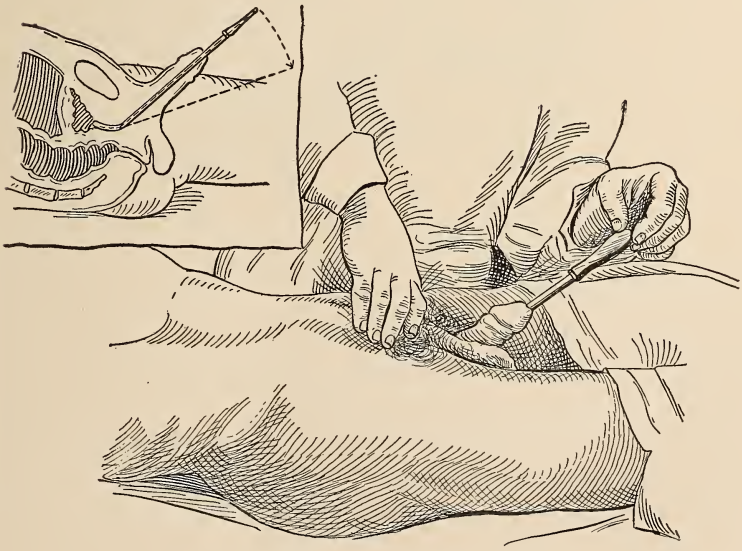


FIG. 628.—Fourth step in passing a sound.

point has entered the opening in the stricture. Having passed the sound entirely through the stricture, it is removed by a reversal of these

steps and a second one is introduced. If this causes pain or spasm, it is immediately withdrawn, and no immediate further attempt to dilate is made. If, however, the urethra tolerates the second instrument, a third one may be introduced.

At the next sitting the dilatation is begun by inserting a sound one size larger than the first instrument used at the previous treatment, and the dilatation is increased one or two sizes as before. In this way the treatments are continued until the desired degree of dilatation is obtained.

The passage of the sound will cause more or less smarting, but it is only transitory. At times a few drops of blood may follow the removal of the instrument. The next act of urination is apt to be painful, and not infrequently the gleety discharge is increased for twenty-four or forty-eight hours. The patient should be warned of these symptoms beforehand.

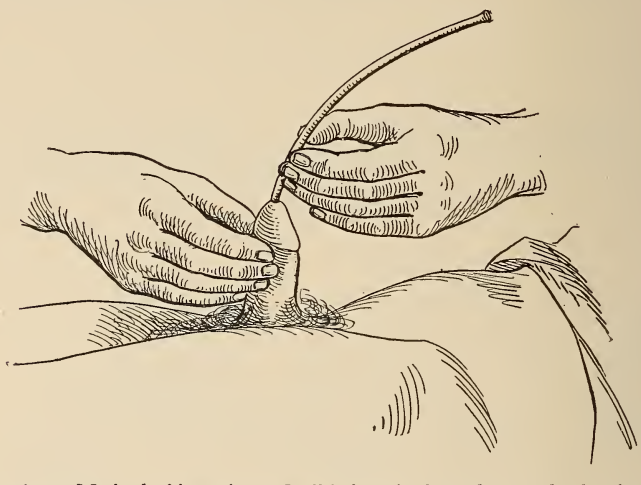


Fig. 629.—Method of inserting a flexible bougie through a urethral stricture.

2. *Small Strictures.*—For small strictures, that is, below 15 French, soft bougies are employed. A bougie of a size that will readily enter the stricture is selected. The penis is held straight up and upon the stretch in the fingers of the left hand after the manner described above, and the bougie, well lubricated, is carefully passed straight down to the seat of obstruction (Fig. 629), provided the latter is in the anterior urethra. An instrument can thus be readily passed straight as far as the bulbomembranous junction, but here it is apt to be obstructed. To pass this point and enter the deep urethra, the bougie should be introduced bent as much as possible to the shape of a curved sound,

and, when the point reaches the bulb, slight pressure should be made with the fingers on the perineum (see Fig. 572). When the instrument strikes the face of the obstruction, gentle attempts are made to engage its point in the stricture. This accomplished, the instrument is pushed on entirely through the stricture, and the dilatation is proceeded with in the same manner as when using sounds. Steel instruments may be substituted for the bougies when the dilatation has been carried as high as 15 French.

3. *Filiform Strictures.*—In the beginning of the treatment of a filiform stricture it often requires the greatest perseverence and skill to enter the bladder, as frequently the stricture is of such small caliber or the opening is so situated that it is extremely difficult to engage even a fine filiform. Once, however, the filiform is inserted, the main difficulty is surmounted. In introducing filiforms the same method is employed as for straight bougies. The penis, grasped in the fingers

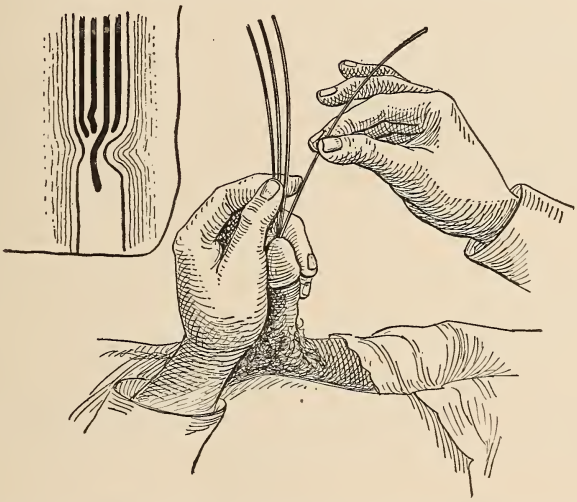


Fig. 630.—Method of passing a filiform bougie through a stricture by first filling the canal with filiforms.

of the operator's left hand, is put upon the stretch and the filiform, well lubricated, is inserted along the floor of the canal. If the point of the instrument is obstructed by a fold of mucous membrane or the opening of some lacuna, it should be withdrawn slightly and then slowly reinserted. When the face of the stricture—the location of which has been previously determined—obstructs the further advance of the filiform the instrument should be slowly rotated about, making attempts to engage its point in the stricture the while, but without using any

force. Sometimes by distending the canal with warm oil it is possible to enter the filiform in the opening of the stricture. Failing with one filiform, a second may be inserted beside the first one and the same manipulation is carried out as with the first. If still unsuccessful, additional filiforms are inserted until the urethra contains six or seven of them. Then gentle attempts are made to pass each in turn, and usually one will finally slip into the opening (Fig. 630), whence it can be readily passed into the bladder. If, after a fair trial, it is impossible to insert an instrument, it is better to give up the attempt for the time being, and try again a few days later. Sometimes upon a second or third trial the opening will be readily located. Gentle manipulation combined with perseverence will result in success in the great majority of cases, but, if it is impossible to pass the instrument by these means, a urethroscope may be passed as far as the obstruction and the filiform inserted by direct sight.

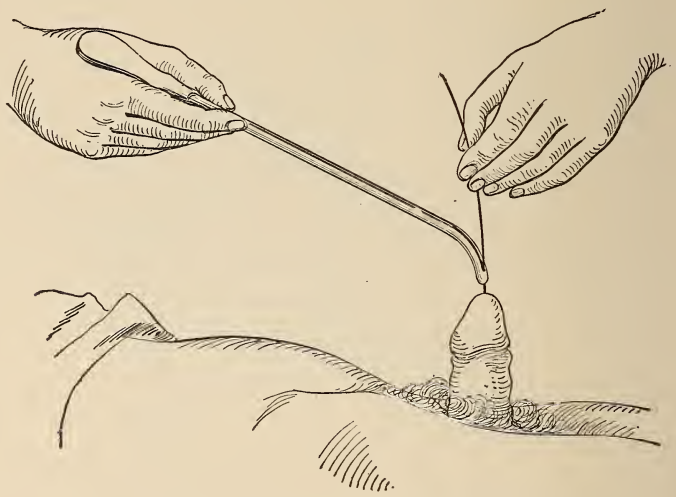


Fig. 631.—Method of passing a tunneled sound over a filiform.

Having finally passed a filiform, the smallest size tunneled sound should be inserted over it as a guide (Fig. 631). If there has been much manipulation in passing the filiform, the operator's efforts had best stop at this, or, at the most, a second sound is introduced. At the next sitting the filiform is again inserted and the dilatation increased by inserting larger instruments over it as a guide. After some dilatation has been thus obtained, soft bougies may be substituted for the filiforms and tunneled sounds, and the treatments may be carried out as outlined above.

Accidents and Complications Attending Dilatation.—There are several troublesome as well as serious complications that may follow the passage of urethral instruments.

Shock.—In some cases, in spite of the utmost gentleness in manipulation, the passage of a sound produces sufficient shock to cause the patient to faint or collapse. It is more likely to occur in patients upon whom an instrument is passed for the first time, especially if they are of a distinctly nervous type and look upon the operation with fear and apprehension.

Much may be done in preventing such a complication when the nervous element is in evidence by avoiding pain through the use of local anesthesia. Should fainting occur, the patient's head is to be immediately lowered and stimulants administered if necessary.

Urethral Chill and Fever.—A form of urinary septicemia spoken of as urethral chill and fever is liable to follow urethral instrumentation. It may be the result of absorption of toxic elements which are present in the urine, in the urethra, or are introduced from without with the instrument, or it may be the result of shock to the kidneys. The condition may be of a mild type—in which case a few hours after the passage of the instrument the patient is seized with a chill followed by fever, more or less prostration, and within twenty-four hours recovery—or it may be severe and progressive and eventually result in the death of the patient.

Preventive treatment, which is of the greatest importance, should consist in rigid asepsis, gentle manipulation of urethral instruments, and antiseptic irrigations or instillations after any instrument has been used. Actual treatment comprises rest in bed, quinin in 5-or 10-grain (0.32 to 0.65 gm.) doses, and the administration of genitourinary antiseptics. In the presence of urinary suppression, hot baths or hot packs and stimulants are indicated.

Inflammation of the Urethra, Prostate, or Bladder.—Inflammation of the stricture, prostatitis, or cystitis may follow as a result of injury to the urethra or vesical neck from rough or careless introduction of instruments or from failure to pay due regard to cleanliness. The inflammation may extend, in addition, from the urethra down the ejaculatory ducts and set up an epididymitis. In the presence of such complications, attempts at dilatation should cease until the acute period is passed and appropriate treatment should be directed to the cure of the complication.

Hemorrhage.—At times considerable hemorrhage may result from the passage of instruments. This, as a rule, indicates a false passage

or an attempt at too great a degree of dilatation at one sitting. Bleeding may occur, however, in some cases where the urethra is markedly congested with scarcely any injury to the tissues. The bleeding usually stops of its own accord. If excessive, the patient should be kept quietly in bed and cold applications should be applied to the perineum.

False Passage.—Another accident that may result from the use of urethral instruments is the formation of a false passage by forcing the instrument through the urethral wall into the surrounding tissues. It is more liable to happen when using rigid instruments of small size and probably occurs more frequently than is recognized. When a false passage is made, there will generally be free hemorrhage at the time or upon withdrawal of the instrument, and the patient will complain of severe pain and may show signs of shock. At the same time, the operator, while conscious that the instrument has passed the obstruction, will recognize that the point is not in the urethra from the direction of the handle. In such a case, if an examination is made by the rectum, the point of the instrument will be found in the perineum near the rectal wall. Furthermore, the instrument, if it be a rigid curved one, cannot be rotated about its own axis as would be the case were its point in the bladder.

Following such an accident, if the patient can urinate, the treatment should be expectant in the main; that is, he should be put to bed and given urinary antiseptics and carefully watched. Should extravasation of urine occur or an abscess develop, prompt and free drainage should be established and perineal urethrotomy should be performed.

CONTINUOUS DILATATION.

Continuous dilatation consists in inserting a filiform or small bougie through a stricture and leaving it in place for twenty-four or forty-eight hours. By the end of this period more or less absorption of the stricture has taken place, so that there is some dilatation, and a larger instrument may then be inserted. It is a method that may be sometimes employed for securing dilatation of tight strictures not amenable to gradual dilatation, and is worthy of trial in such cases before resorting to a radical cutting operation. The method has its objections, however, in that it is necessary to keep the patient under constant observation and in bed; furthermore, irritation from the instrument in the urethra is apt to cause urethritis which may in turn lead to cystitis. The method is contraindicated in the presence of cystitis or if renal complications exist.

Instruments.—Filiform (see Fig. 563) or soft bougies (see Fig. 562) may be employed.

Asepsis.—Rigid asepsis is, of course, imperative. The instruments are to be sterilized as already described (page 539). The penis and meatus are washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The urethra should be irrigated with a 1 to 5000 permanganate of potash or saturated boric acid solution, and the bladder should be likewise irrigated with boric acid solution, if possible, upon changing the instruments.

Technic.—The instrument is passed through the stricture after the method already described for intermittent dilatation (page 586), and is then securely fastened in place. There are several methods of doing this, but the following is the simplest and most effective: Four pieces of adhesive, each about 4 inches (12 cm.) long and 1/4 inch (6 mm.) wide are secured to the bougie (which for a space of an inch (2.5 cm.) in front of the meatus has been thoroughly dried and from which all grease has been removed) in such a way that one strip lies upon the dorsum, one on the ventral surface, and one on either lateral surface of the penis. When a foreskin is present, it is drawn down over the glans and each strip is carried over it and caused to adhere to the penis. An additional strip of adhesive 1 inch (2.5 cm.) wide

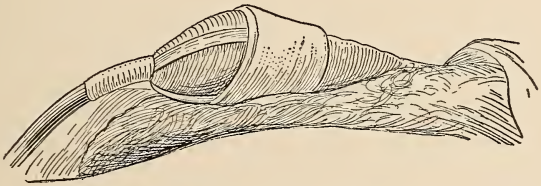


Fig. 632.—Showing the method of securing a bougie or catheter in the urethra. (After Sinclair, *Polyclinic Journal*, July, 1908.)

is placed horizontally about the penis just behind the corona covering the four small strips (Fig.632). This strip should not entirely encircle the penis, thus avoiding any danger of constricting it. Where there is no foreskin, a piece of gauze should be interposed between the glans and the small strips. A liberal sterile gauze dressing is then wrapped about the peins and the protruding instrument, and the whole is supported by means of a T-bandage. The urine escapes along the side of the bougie into the gauze, which should be changed when saturated. Within twenty-four or forty-eight hours the bougie is removed, and the stricture will be found sufficiently stretched to permit the easy introduction of a larger instrument. This is left in for

the same length of time, and upon its removal gradual dilatation may be begun.

When there is retention of urine, the filiform is passed as before and a tunneled catheter is passed over it as a guide into the bladder (page 588), and the urine is drawn off. The bladder is then irrigated and the catheter removed, but the filiform is secured in place as described above. Usually urine will begin to pass along the bougie in a short while, but if not it may be withdrawn as often as necessary by means of a tunneled catheter.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE BLADDER.

Anatomic Considerations.

The bladder is a musculomembranous reservoir for the reception of urine, lying behind the pubes and in front of the rectum in the male and the uterus in the female. The bladder may be described as having (1) a summit, or apex; (2) a base, or fundus, which rests upon the rectum and into which open the ureters; (3) a body, or middle portion; and (4) a neck, or constricted portion, opening into the urethra. It has an average physiological capacity of from 6 to 9 ounces (178 to 266 c.c.), and a normal maximum capacity of 24 ounces (710 c.c.), but, under certain pathological conditions, it may become enormously distended without rupture. Its shape and position depend to a certain extent upon whether it is empty or full. When empty, it lies well behind the pubes, and upon median section appears triangular in outline; when partially filled, it becomes rounded in outline; and, when completely distended, it becomes oval and rises partly from the pelvis into the abdominal cavity.

The peritoneum partially covers the anterior surface and sides of the bladder, and entirely covers the superior surface, extending posteriorly as far as the level of a transverse line passed between the upper limits of the seminal vesicles, whence it is reflected to the rectum in the male, while in the female it is reflected to the uterus. When the bladder becomes distended, the peritoneum is carried from the anterior abdominal wall with it, so that in retention of urine with distention it becomes possible to empty the viscus by passing an aspirator into it above the pubes without fear of entering the peritoneal cavity (Fig. 633).

Beneath the peritoneal coat lies the muscular layer. It consists of three coats: external, middle, and internal. The external is composed of fibers arranged longitudinally and in thick bundles over the anterior and posterior surfaces, but forming a comparatively thin layer at the sides. The fibers of the middle coat have a circular arrangement. They are thickest at the neck where they form the internal vesical sphincter. The internal layer is thinner than either of the others. Some of its fibers are arranged longitudinally and others circularly.

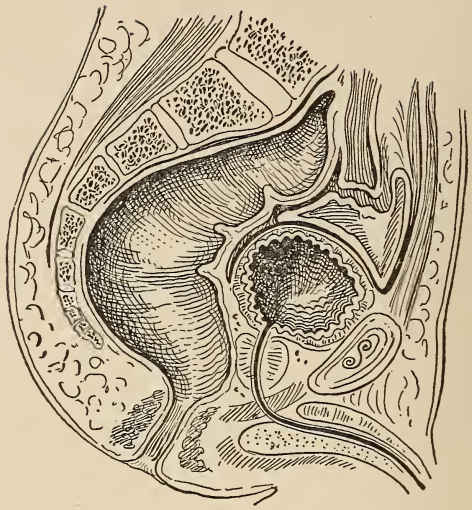


FIG. 633.—Showing the space above the pubes through which it is possible to enter the bladder without opening into the peritoneum.

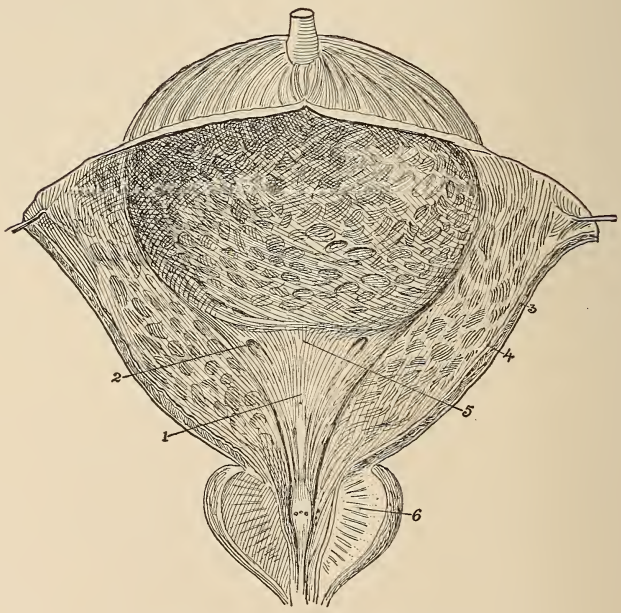


FIG. 634.—The interior of the bladder.

1, Trigone; 2, orifice of ureter; 3, muscular layer; 4, mucous membrane; 5, interureteric line; 6, prostate gland.

The mucous coat is composed of stratified pavement epithelium. It is of a pale salmon color. When the bladder is distended, the mucous membrane forms a smooth lining for the interior, but is thrown up into thick folds when the viscus is empty, except over the portion known as the trigone where it is always smooth. The mucous membrane of the bladder is comparatively insensitive to touch when in a normal condition, as it has a scant nerve supply, the most sensitive portion being over the trigone. The trigone is a smooth triangular space at the base of the bladder, the apex of which corresponds to the opening of the urethra and the base to a line passing between the orifices of the two ureters (Fig. 634).

The ureters pierce the bladder wall obliquely and appear upon the mucous membrane as round openings or oval slits directed forward and inward. These orifices are from 1 to 1 1/2 inches (2.5 to 3.8 cm.) apart and about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) from the beginning of the urethra.

Diagnostic Methods.

When examining a case of suspected bladder disease the symptoms complained of should first receive careful attention. In addition to the usual questions, information bearing upon the act of urination should be sought, ascertaining whether there is frequency of urination, whether there is urgency, whether the act is difficult, whether pain is present and, if so, its relation to the passage of urine, whether the force or caliber of the stream is changed, etc., etc.

Frequency of urination is common in all bladder affections where the mucous membrane is inflamed. It is also a symptom of vesical stone, tumor, foreign body, or an enlarged prostate. In the presence of stone this symptom is more marked when the patient is up and about or after exertion, while in the case of an enlarged prostate it is more pronounced at night. Frequent micturition may, however, occur when the bladder is healthy, as in diabetes, in hysteria, in those who drink large quantities of water, in those whose urine contains excessive amounts of uric acid or oxalates, etc.

Urgency of micturition, or the feeling of being compelled to pass urine the instant the desire is felt, points strongly to inflammation of the bladder or the prostate. Inflammation or irritation of the urethra may also cause it. It is, however, sometimes observed as the result of certain mental emotions, as fright or apprehension, or mental suggestions, such as the sound of running water. Irritating urine and diseases of the nervous system are also causes.

With a history of painful micturition, it is important to determine

the seat of the pain and the exact relation it bears to the act of urination. Pain from prostatitis is generally felt in the perineum or rectum, pain in bladder disease is felt over the pubes, in kidney disease in the loins. A vesical calculus, however, will frequently cause pain in the head of the penis. Pain at the beginning of urination, as a rule, points to some obstruction to the outflow of urine or to inflammation of the urethra, or it may be the result of very irritating urine. If it occurs during micturition, it may be caused by inflammation of the urethra, prostate, or bladder wall. Pain at the end of urination occurs when a vesical calculus is present or when there is inflammation involving the neck of the bladder or the prostate. In acute prostatitis pain is also present upon defecation. When pain is present in the intervals between the acts of urination, it may be caused by a vesical calculus, tumors, or prostatic abscess. When such pain is increased upon exertion and entirely relieved by rest in the dorsal position, it is believed by some writers to be pathognomonic of vesical calculus.

Difficulty of urination, as a rule, indicates stricture of the urethra or an enlarged prostate. Changes in the caliber of the stream generally point to stricture. In the presence of enlarged prostate, disease of the bladder wall, and in some nervous affections, the force of the stream may be greatly diminished, so much so as to amount to a mere dribbling. A vesical calculus may at times cause a sudden stoppage of the stream, and this is frequently accompanied by sharp pain.

While a complete history should always be obtained, at the same time too much importance should not be placed upon symptomatology in the diagnosis of vesical affections. The symptoms are often deceptive, as they may be common to diseases involving the bladder, kidneys, or urethra. Even when they clearly point to the bladder as their seat of origin, they are frequently of but little value in differentiating between the various morbid conditions that may affect this organ. An accurate diagnosis can only be arrived at by a physical examination along the lines detailed below.

The methods available for examination of the bladder include urinalysis, inspection, percussion, palpation, sounding, cystoscopy, tests of the capacity, the sufficiency, and the absorption power of the bladder, and the X-rays.

EXAMINATION OF THE URINE.

A complete chemical, microscopical, and bacteriological examination of the urine should be made in all cases of suspected disease of the bladder or kidneys. The proper method of collecting the speci-

men for such examination has been previously described (page 224), but it is outside the province of this work to describe urinalysis; for this the reader is referred to some of the numerous works devoted to the subject. The diagnostic significance of modifications in the normal condition of the urine as far as applies to vesical and renal disease will, however, be briefly considered.

The quantity of urine passed normally by a healthy adult amounts to from 35 to 50 ounces (1000–1500 c.c.) in twenty-four hours, but this may be greatly modified even in health, depending upon the season of the year, the quantity of water imbibed, the amount of exercise taken, the condition of the nervous system, etc., etc. In certain diseases, as fevers, in affections accompanied by night-sweats or diarrhea, chronic parenchymatous and acute nephritis, in blockage of a ureter by an impacted stone or by a twist, in shock, hemorrhage, etc., the output of urine may be greatly decreased (oliguria). On the other hand, an increased quantity of urine (polyuria) will be found in hysteria, in the presence of interstitial changes in the kidney, from the use of diuretics, in diabetes, in renal tuberculosis, in pyelitis, etc.

In bladder affections the daily output of urine generally remains unchanged and, in the presence of marked changes in this respect, involvement of the kidneys or some constitutional disease may be implied.

The specific gravity ranges normally from 1018 to 1022. The specific gravity is closely related to the amount of solids excreted, so to be of value the test should be applied to a mixture of the urine voided during twenty-four hours.

In diseases of the bladder the specific gravity is unaffected, but in renal disease it may be markedly changed. A low specific gravity and an increased output of urine, when the bladder is diseased, points strongly to pyelitis or pyelonephritis.

The odor of urine is faintly aromatic, the more marked the greater the proportion of solids. The taking of such drugs as copaiba, cubebs, turpentine, and sandalwood modify this characteristic odor. In diabetic coma the odor of the urine resembles that of chloroform from the presence of acetone and diacetic acid. Urine that has undergone ammoniacal decomposition, as is frequently the case in chronic cystitis, has the characteristic and offensive odor of stale urine. Urine coming from a bladder which communicates with the rectum by a rectovesical fistula has an odor of skatol. In the presence of ulcerations within the bladder, especially ulcerating tumors, the urine will be foul-smelling and may even have a distinct odor of putrefaction.

The color of the urine is a light or dark amber depending upon the concentration. The presence of blood gives the urine a bright red or reddish black hue, depending upon whether the hemorrhage is recent or old. Bile gives a dark yellow or brownish color with a greenish tinge. In chyluria the urine appears milky. Fevers render the urine darker than normal. Various drugs may also modify the color, thus senna, rhubarb, and santonin may color the urine a golden-yellow or deep red hue, methylene blue gives a greenish-blue color, and poisoning from carbolic acid, chlorate of potash, or creosote makes the urine smoky or black.

Transparency.—Normal urine should be clear and transparent when voided. In bladder diseases the urine is, as a rule, turbid. Turbidity may be caused by urates, phosphates, blood, pus, epithelium, chyle, or bacteria. The turbidity caused by urates disappears upon heating the urine, that due to phosphates clears up upon the addition of one or two drops of acetic acid.

In bacteriuria, as is seen after the passage of unclean instruments, the turbidity is slight and remains unchanged upon standing, upon the application of heat, or in the presence of acetic acid. The condition is readily recognized by the aid of the microscope.

The turbidity produced by pus is increased upon heating the urine, and does not disappear upon the addition of an acid. Furthermore, upon allowing such a specimen to stand a few hours, it will be found that the pus settles to the bottom leaving the rest of the fluid clear. A simple test for the presence of pus is to add a little solution of potassium hydrate to the suspected specimen; in the presence of pus a gelatinous precipitate is formed.

The reaction of urine is normally slightly acid. The acidity is increased in fevers, gout, lithemia, rheumatism, chronic Brights disease, etc., and upon a diet composed chiefly of proteids. A vegetable diet and large quantities of fluids render the urine neutral or alkaline.

In diseases of the bladder the urine may be acid or alkaline, thus in acute cystitis the urine is usually acid. In chronic cystitis it may be either acid or alkaline, always the latter in the presence of ammoniacal fermentation, but when due to the gonococcus, tubercle bacillus, or colon bacillus it is acid. In uncomplicated cases of pyelitis and pyelonephritis the urine also has an acid reaction.

Albuminuria.—Albumin in the urine is not to be considered an invariable sign of kidney disease. It will be found in any case with blood or pus in the urine, and it is sometimes a difficult matter to decide whether the albumin be due to an existing cystitis or is of renal

origin. Sometimes the two will exist together. If the bladder alone is affected, the albumin will be in proportion to the amount of blood or pus present, and, as a rule, will be small in amount, rarely over 0.1 per cent. In pyelitis the proportion is much higher.

Hematuria.—Blood in the urine may have its source in any part of the genitourinary tract, as the urethra, prostate, bladder, ureters, or kidneys. While it is not always possible to determine the source of the hemorrhage from an examination of the urine, there are certain characteristic differences in hemorrhages from these different regions.

Urethral hemorrhage may arise from acute urethritis or inflamed strictures, or may follow traumatism to the canal, the passage of instruments, etc. In urethral hemorrhage, if the source is from in front of the compressor urethræ muscle, the blood appears independently of urination, and may escape from the meatus freely, in drops, or in the form of long clots. If from the posterior urethra, the blood finds its way backward into the bladder and, when of considerable quantity, uniformly discolors the urine. If, however, the posterior hemorrhage is slight, the first and last portions of the urine passed may be blood-tinged while the intermediary portion will be clear.

Vesical hemorrhage may follow the sudden and complete emptying of the bladder in retention, or it may be due to trauma, the passage of instruments, varicosities, stone, inflammation, ulcer, tuberculosis, tumors, etc. The urine in a recent vesical hemorrhage may be comparatively clear at first, or only slightly discolored, becoming more so as the bladder is emptied, until it finally has a bright red color or consists of almost pure blood. It may contain large clots which have no definite shape, and, if long retained, they appear black and tarry. The reaction of the urine is generally alkaline.

Renal hematuria may be due to inflammation, congestion, trauma, stone, tuberculosis, tumors, the use of strong diuretics, etc., etc. The blood will be thoroughly mixed with the urine, imparting to the latter a smoky tint or deep red-brown color. It will be found that the corpuscles are greatly changed and without coloring matter, often appearing as mere shadows, but in cases of ruptured kidney or in severe renal hemorrhage from other cause, they may remain unaltered and the urine will be much lighter in color. The urine during renal hemorrhage and just after is generally acid in reaction unless the bleeding has been severe or pus is present. Large clots are seldom formed unless the blood coagulates after reaching the bladder, but there may be found casts of the kidney tubules or cylindrical-shaped clots from the ureters.

A more positive diagnosis between hematuria of renal origin and

that of the bladder may be made by introducing a catheter and thoroughly washing out the bladder with a warm normal salt solution, being careful to wash out all the clots. If the blood is of renal origin, the last washings will consist of clear fluid and will remain clear until more blood flows from the ureters. If, on the other hand, the bleeding arises from the bladder, it will be found impossible to completely free the fluid from blood.

By means of a cystoscopic examination (page 610) the bladder may be excluded as the source of the blood if it is found free from disease, or it may be possible to see blood escaping from one or other ureter. (See also the absorption test, page 609.)

Pyuria.—Pus in the urine is a common accompaniment of bladder diseases and also those affecting the urethra and kidneys. Pyuria is a symptom of suppuration or catarrh in the genitourinary tract; thus it will be found in pyonephritis, pyelitis, tuberculosis, cystitis, urethritis, etc. It is characterized by cloudy urine in which a thick yellow sediment settles upon standing.

A differential diagnosis between urethral pus and bladder pus may be made by having the patient void his urine in two glasses (page 532.) If the urethra is the source, the first glass of urine will be found cloudy and the contents of the second glass clear or nearly so. When the bladder is affected the contents of both glasses will be equally cloudy.

In deciding between vesical and renal pyuria, it should be borne in mind that in the former condition the amount of albumin will be slight and there will be no renal casts, but bladder epithelium will be found; while in urine containing pus from the kidney albumin will be found in a greater proportion than can be accounted for by the amount of pus, and casts may be present. The use of the catheter or cystoscope will, however, furnish more exact evidence as to the source of the pyuria.

To apply the first test, the bladder is thoroughly washed with a warm normal salt or boric acid solution through a catheter until the fluid returns clear. The catheter is then clamped and allowed to remain in place ten or fifteen minutes, and what urine has entered the bladder in the meantime is drawn off. If this last specimen is again turbid we may conclude that the pus comes from the kidneys.

On cystoscopic examination, if the bladder be found free from disease, this evidence points to the kidney as the source of pus. The diagnosis may be made absolute if pus is seen exuding from the ureters or a sample of urine obtained by ureteral catheterization contains pus.

INSPECTION.

Inspection of the bladder without the aid of instruments is extremely limited in value. By inspection of the abdomen, it is possible to recognize a distention of the bladder, and, in the female, by means of a vaginal inspection, some information as to the condition of the floor of the bladder may be gained.

Position of Patient.—For ordinary abdominal inspection the patient lies flat on the back with the body uncovered from the umbilicus to the knees, and with the legs extended in the same plane as the body.

For inspection through the vagina the patient should be in the dorsal posture.

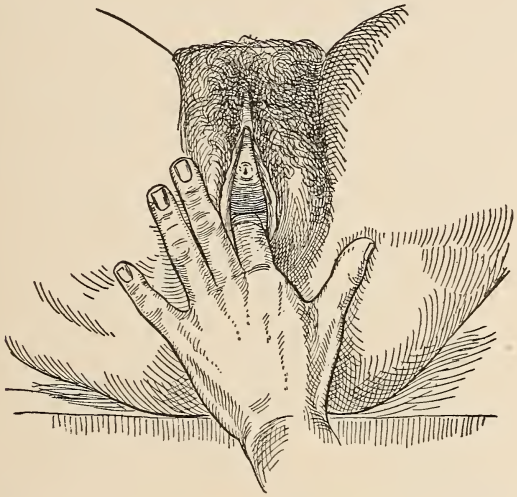


Fig. 635.—Vaginal inspection of the bladder. (Ashton.)

Technic.—1. *Abdominal Inspection.*—The examiner takes his position upon one side of the patient and carefully notes any change in the size or shape of the hypogastrium. A distended bladder appears as an ovoid tumor with the narrow end down, situated above the symphysis generally in the median line.

2. *Vaginal Inspection.*—The examiner sits facing the vulva, and, by retracting the perineum with the index-finger of the left hand introduced within the vagina (Fig. 635), the anterior vaginal wall is exposed for inspection. In this way a displacement of the bladder, protrusion from distention, or a vesicovaginal fistula may be recognized.

PERCUSSION.

Percussion of the bladder is chiefly of use in determining the presence or absence of distention. The percussion note over the hypo-

gastrium is normally tympanitic. When the bladder becomes distended with fluid, there will be a fluctuating tumor above the symphysis which gives a flat percussion note and tympany at the sides. If, however, coils of intestine fill the space between the bladder and the abdominal wall, as is sometimes the case where the intestines become adherent as the result of pelvic peritonitis, percussion will furnish but imperfect information, as a tympanitic note may be obtained and yet the bladder be distended. Any doubt as to the presence of distention should be immediately settled by passing a catheter into the bladder.

PALPATION.

In the case of thin individuals with relaxed abdominal walls palpation will often give valuable information, but in fat or very muscular patients it is of limited use. The palpation may be performed abdominally or bimanually. The latter method yields the most valuable information. Distention, foreign bodies, calculi, tumors, and tender

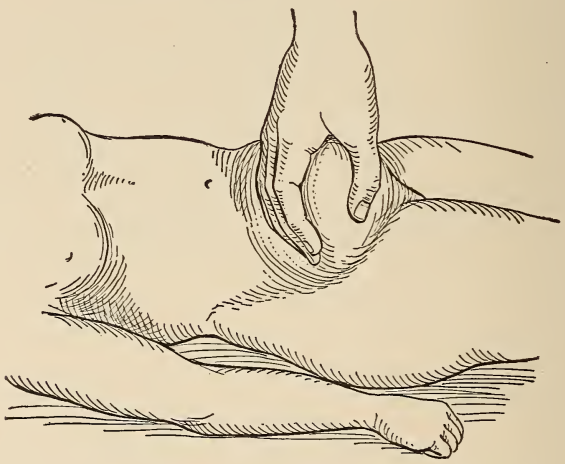


Fig. 636.—Abdominal palpation of a distended bladder.

areas may be thus recognized, and an idea as to the thickness and sensibility of the bladder walls may be obtained. It is an especially useful method to employ in examining the bladders of children.

Digital palpation of the bladder by means of a finger introduced through a perineal or suprapubic wound or through the urethra in the female are methods now rarely employed for diagnosis alone, as we have other equally efficient and more simple means of examination.

Position of Patient.—For abdominal palpation the patient should be in the dorsal posture with the thighs flexed and the body uncovered

from the umbilicus down. This or the knee-chest posture may be employed for bimanual examination.

Anesthesia.—In stout individuals or those with rigid abdominal walls, it may be impossible to make a satisfactory bimanual examination without the aid of general anesthesia.

Technic. 1. *Abdominal Palpation.*—The examiner stands upon the left side of the patient, and, placing his right hand flat upon the abdomen just above the pubes, gently palpates the hypogastric region by means of his finger tips. In thin individuals, if distention is present, a fluctuating tumor will be recognized. By requesting the patient to breathe deeply with the mouth open and at the same time pressing the ulnar border of the hand deeply toward the pelvis, it is often possible

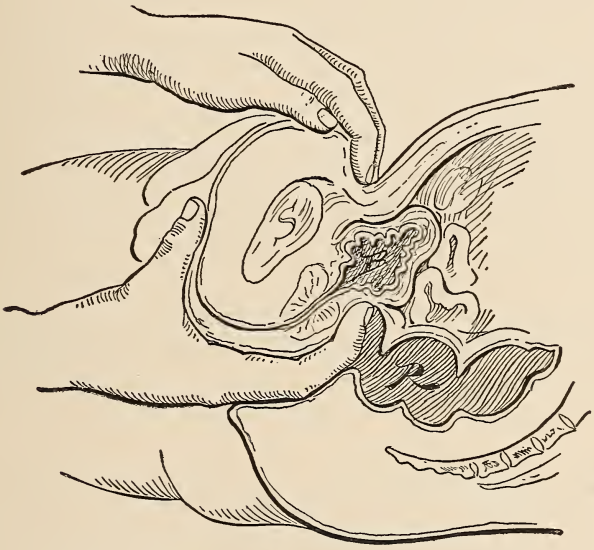


Fig. 637.—Bimanual palpation of the bladder.

to outline the swelling of a distended bladder more distinctly (Fig. 636). Such manipulation will frequently cause the patient to evince a desire to urinate.

2. *Bimanual Palpation.*—The bladder should be first emptied. The index-finger of the right hand or the index and middle fingers, if possible, are introduced into the rectum in the male or the vagina in the female, after first being well lubricated. The four fingers of the left hand are then placed above the symphysis, and, while they make counter pressure toward the base of the bladder, the entire viscus is palpated bimanually (Fig. 637).

SOUNDING.

Palpation of the interior of the bladder by means of a suitable sound is a method of exploration employed in cases of suspected stone, foreign bodies, or tumors. The sound is also of value in testing the sensitiveness of the bladder walls and in estimating the amount of intravesical enlargement of the prostate (page 537) and in the diagnosis of cystocele in the female.

While sounding is a fairly reliable method in searching for a stone, there are certain difficulties and sources of error that should be borne in mind. A stone may be encrusted with blood and mucus and so be missed entirely, or it may be encysted with only such a small portion exposed that it may be difficult to reach it, or it may lie behind an enlarged middle lobe of the prostate. Very small stones may likewise be missed or they may be so light that the slight shock imparted by contact of the instrument is unnoticed. A tumor or a contracted thick bladder wall encrusted with lime salts or phosphates may give a sensation that is confused with the click of a stone.

Instruments.—For sounding the male bladder a Thompson metallic searcher (Fig. 638) is employed. This instrument has a fairly

Fig. 638.—Thompson stone searcher.

large beak, flattened from side to side, which joins the shaft at the angle of 120 degrees. The shaft should be slender—12 to 15 French scale—so it can be readily moved back and forth or rotated from side to side within the urethra. The handle of the instrument is supplied with a guide which indicates the direction of the beak.

Asepsis.—The sound is boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. sodium carbonate solution. The external genitals are cleansed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The hands of the operator should be sterilized in the usual way. The urethra should be irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid or a 1 to 5000 permanganate of potassium solution. The bladder is emptied and irrigated with boric acid solution.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in a recumbent position with the hips raised several inches higher than the head and the thighs extended flat.

Preparations of the Patient.—The rectum should be empty. About 4 ounces (120 c.c.) in an adult and 2 ounces (60 c.c.) in a child of a saturated boric acid solution or a normal salt solution should be introduced into the bladder, so as to permit easy movement of the searcher and to prevent the stone from being concealed in the folds of mucous membrane.

Anesthesia.—As a rule, no anesthesia is necessary. In sensitive cases the instillation of a few drops of a 2 per cent. solution of cocain into the posterior urethra will suffice, or the bladder may be filled with 5 ounces (150 c.c.) of a warm 0.1 per cent. solution of cocain to which is added 20 drops (1.25 c.c.) of adrenalin chlorid. This is to be retained fifteen to twenty minutes. If the bladder is extremely irritable and the patient nervous, a general anesthetic may be administered. In children anesthesia is always necessary.

Technic.—The instrument is well lubricated with lubrichondrin or one of the other Iceland-moss preparations and is introduced in the same manner as a sound (page 540). When the beak of the instrument reaches the triangular ligament, the fingers of the left hand are applied to the perineum and assist in guiding the point into the opening. The handle of the sound is then brought down between the thighs and the instrument is at the same time gently pushed into the bladder. As the instrument traverses the fixed curve of the urethra, pressure should be made over the region of the pubes to relax the suspensory ligament of the penis (see Fig. 569). To be sure the point is within the bladder, the instrument should be introduced a distance of about 8 inches (20 cm.).

A systematic examination of the entire bladder is then performed. The instrument, being held lightly between the thumb and the forefinger of the right hand, is first inserted to the full length, and is then slowly withdrawn, rotating the beak from side to side, so that the point of the sound is brought into contact with every portion of the bladder wall. In this way any thickness or rigidity of the bladder wall, as is found in hypertrophy, chronic inflammatory conditions, and in the presence of firm growths, may be recognized. In the same manner sensitiveness of the organ may be tested. Normally, the bladder has but little sensation to touch except in the region of the trigone. In cases of posterior urethritis this region may be markedly hyperesthetic. Local areas of increased sensitiveness point to ulceration or new growths, while in cases of cystitis the entire bladder will be sensitive.

In examining for suspected stone the search should be carried out in the same systematic manner, carrying the instrument to the fundus

first and then tapping each lateral wall in succession as the instrument is withdrawn to the vesical neck. The upper wall of the bladder is then palpated by depressing the handle of the instrument well down between

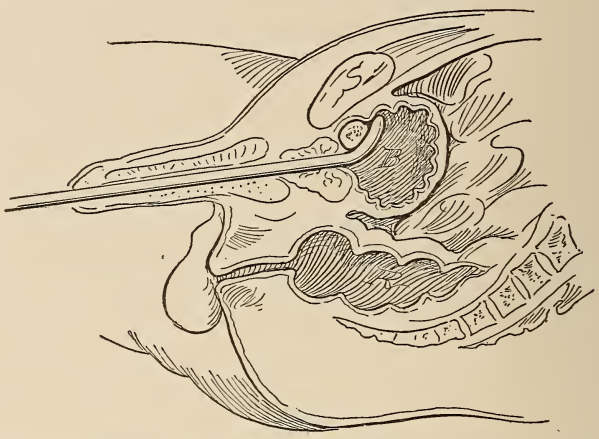


FIG. 639.—Palpation of a stone lodged above the vesical opening.

the thighs, and as an aid the bladder wall may be depressed toward the instrument by means of the free hand placed above the pubes. In this way a stone located above the vesical opening may be located

FIG. 640.—Palpation of a stone lodged behind the prostate with the aid of a finger in the rectum.

(Fig. 639). The beak of the sound is then rotated and turned downward. In doing this, if the point catches in the mucous membrane, the handle should be depressed so as to lift the beak clear of the floor.

The posterior prostatic region is then explored. Should the prostate be enlarged, the handle of the instrument should be raised somewhat, and, with a finger in the rectum, it will be possible to bring a stone, if one is present, within reach of the instrument (Fig. 640).

When the sound strikes a stone, the examiner will recognize the fact by a distinct click that may be heard as well as felt. Some idea as to the consistency of the stone may be gained from the sharpness of the ring; a high-pitched metallic click generally indicates a hard stone (oxalate), while a dull low-pitched sound would indicate a soft stone (urate). It is also possible to determine whether a stone is rough or smooth from the sensation imparted as the beak of the instrument is drawn over its surface. If possible it should be ascertained whether a stone is movable or fixed by attempting to dislodge it with the beak of the instrument or by changing the position of the patient, that is, after the stone is located, the sound is withdrawn and the patient is put in the knee-chest posture; on resuming the dorsal position, the instrument is again inserted and any change in the position of the stone is noted.

To determine the size of the stone, the beak of the instrument is carried over the posterior surface and the position of the meatus is marked on the shaft. The instrument is then slowly withdrawn, tapping the stone the while, until the anterior border is reached and the relation of the meatus to the shaft is again noted. Subtracting the latter measurement from the first one gives approximately the length of the stone in its antero-posterior diameter. The transverse diameter may be likewise estimated by tapping the stone from side to side.

At the completion of the operation the instrument is removed by a reversal of the steps taken in its insertion, and the bladder is irrigated with a warm saturated solution of boric acid, followed by a deep urethral instillation of 1 to 1500 silver nitrate solution.

TEST OF THE BLADDER CAPACITY.

By distending the bladder with fluid its capacity is readily estimated, and from this it may be determined whether the bladder is normal, atonic, or contracted. If large quantities of solution can be injected without inducing contractions, it may be inferred that atony or paralysis exists; but if, on the other hand, the bladder is in an inflamed condition or is contracted, it will often not be possible to inject more than an ounce (30 c.c.) or so without the patient's complaining of distention.

This test is also useful in the diagnosis of a ruptured bladder. By injecting a definite amount of solution into the bladder and noting

the quantity that returns, the presence or absence of rupture may be readily recognized. In performing this test, however, it is necessary to inject 6 to 8 ounces (178 to 236 c.c.) of fluid, as small amounts may give misleading results.

Apparatus.—An ordinary soft-rubber catheter for the male or a glass catheter for the female and a large syringe, such as a Janet or Record (Fig. 641), are required

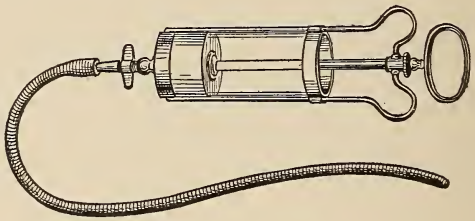


Fig. 641.—Catheter and syringe for estimating the bladder capacity.

Aspesis.—The apparatus is sterilized by boiling and the examiner's hands are to be thoroughly cleansed. The external genitals are washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury, and the urethra is irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid or a 1 to 5000 solution of potassium permanganate.

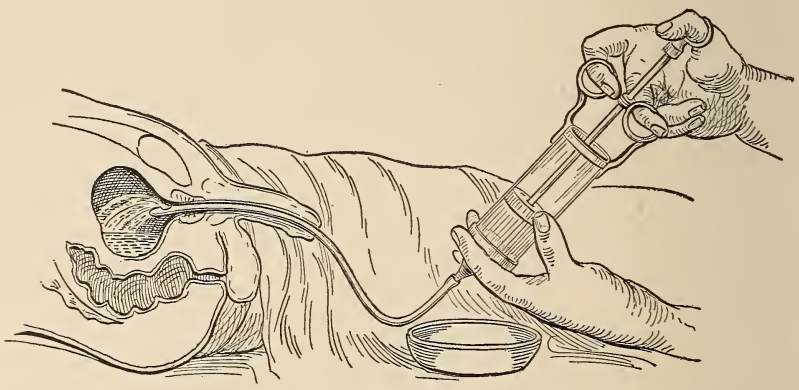


Fig. 642.—Method of distending the bladder with fluid when estimating its capacity.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal position upon a flat table.

Technic.—The catheter, well lubricated with lubrichondrin, is introduced into the bladder and all the urine is drawn off. The syringe is then filled with a warm (100° F.) saturated solution of boric acid or normal salt solution, and the solution is slowly injected into the bladder (Fig. 642). As soon as the patient complains of distention, the

injection is stopped and the quantity of fluid that has entered the bladder is estimated. The syringe is then disconnected from the catheter and the fluid is allowed to escape from the bladder through the catheter.

ESTIMATION OF RESIDUAL URINE.

Normally, with micturition the bladder empties itself almost completely, but, if the evacuation of urine is interfered with by obstruction from a stricture or an enlarged prostate or from the condition of the bladder itself, as, for example, in atony, cystocele, etc., the evacuation will be incomplete and more or less residual urine will remain. The amount of residual urine often has a bearing upon the prognosis as well as the treatment to be pursued in a given case, and its estimation is thus of some importance.

Apparatus.—All that is required is a Mercier catheter with a coudé curve and a glass graduate.

Asepsis.—The catheter is sterilized by immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution followed by rinsing in sterile water. The external genitals are cleansed in the usual way and the urethra is irrigated with a mild antiseptic solution. The hands of the operator should likewise be sterile.

Technic.—The patient is instructed to empty his bladder as completely as possible while in the upright position. He is then placed in the dorsal position. The catheter, well lubricated, is introduced into the bladder, and any urine that remains is drawn off into the graduate and is measured. This may amount to from 1 dram (3.75 c.c. to several ounces. If there is more than 2 ounces (59 c.c.) of residual urine, it is certain that some interference with the voluntary evacuation of the bladder exists. Observation of the flow of urine from the catheter may also furnish valuable information. If the urine is expelled in a strong gush, it indicates that the muscular structure of the bladder is competent, while, if it simply escapes by gravity, an atonic condition is probably present.

THE ABSORPTION TEST.

A test sometimes employed to determine whether blood in the urine has its source in the bladder consists in injecting a solution of iodid of potassium into the bladder and later testing the saliva for iodin. Ordinarily there will be no absorption from the healthy bladder, but, if raw or ulcerated surfaces are present, absorption of the

iodid of potassium is quite rapid and iodin will be eliminated in the saliva.

Aparatus.—There will be required an ordinary soft-rubber irrigating catheter, a Janet syringe, and a test-tube.

Asepsis.—The usual aseptic precautions employed when introducing an instrument into the bladder should be observed.

Technic.—The patient first empties his bladder. The soft catheter is then introduced and the bladder is well irrigated with normal salt solution. From 2 to 3 ounces (59 to 89 c.c.) of a 1 per cent. solution of potassium iodid are then injected into the bladder and the catheter is removed. At the end of ten or fifteen minutes some of the patient's saliva is collected in a test-tube and is tested for iodin. This is readily done by adding a few drops of a dilute solution of cooked starch and stirring with a glass rod dipped in fuming nitric acid. If iodin is present in the saliva, the mixture will turn blue.

CYSTOSCOPY.

Cystoscopy is the inspection of the interior of the bladder by the aid of an instrument especially devised for the purpose, the cystoscope. It is a method of examination that may be of the greatest value when employed by an expert, but it is of limited use in the hands of the inexperienced, for it is absolutely essential that the examiner be familiar with the appearance of the normal bladder before he can recognize and correctly interpret pathological conditions, and this can only be learned by practical experience.

By a cystoscopic examination properly carried out it is possible to obtain an accurate picture of the interior of the bladder and to study the appearance of the ureteral orifices as well as the condition of the urine that escapes from them; that is, whether it contains pus or blood. Cystoscopy thus becomes of service not only for diagnosis of obscure vesical affections that may escape recognition by other means, but also in the diagnosis between a possible vesical and kidney lesion.

The method has, however, certain limitations. It cannot be employed with success in the presence of marked hypertrophy of the prostate, when the bladder is greatly contracted, or when there is an active vesical hemorrhage going on which obscures the view. It is contraindicated in the presence of acute urethritis, acute prostatitis, epididymitis, or acute cystitis. The urethra must, as a rule, be of a caliber of 22 to 24 French, and, if the meatus is narrow, it must be first cut, or, if strictures are present, they must be sufficiently dilated before the instrument can be introduced.

Instruments.—Cystoscopes are of two types, the direct view, in which the light is on the convex side of the beak and the eye looks down a straight tube through a window in the distal end, and the indirect view, in which the light is placed on the concave side and the image is reflected at right angles to the eye-piece, thus giving an inverted picture. Some of the newer indirect view instruments, however, give an upright picture.

For the simple examination of the bladder the use of an indirect-view cystoscope gives the best results, as with such an instrument the roof, floor, and walls of the bladder—excepting a part of the posterior wall—may be readily inspected. The examination may be satisfactorily performed either by means of a special exploring cystoscope, such as the Nitze, Otis, Schapira, etc., or by means of one of the ureter-catheterizing cystoscopes to be described later on (see page 652). The exploring cystoscope has an advantage over the catheterizing instruments, however, in that its shaft being small the examination is less painful.

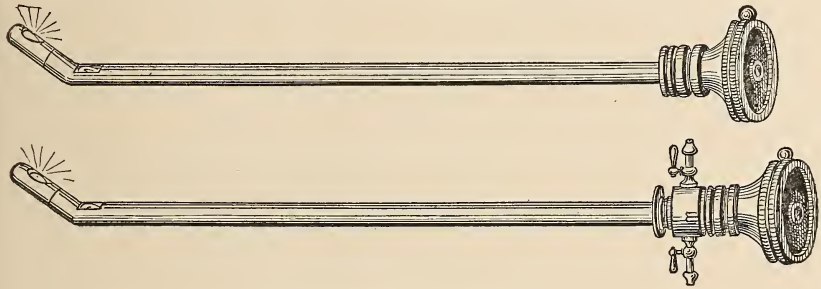


Fig. 643.—Nitze's cystoscopes.

The Nitze instrument (Fig. 643) is the oldest type of the indirect or right-angled view cystoscope. It consists essentially of a metal tube 9 inches (23 cm.) long and from 15 to 24 French scale in size, having at the distal end a short beak fitted with a small electric lamp and on the concave side of the instrument at the point where the beak joins the shaft a lens, beneath which is placed a prism. From the prism the image is reflected at right angles through a series of lenses to the eye-piece. A small knob soldered on the circumference of the eye-piece indicates the position of the cystoscopic window. The instrument is fitted with two-way stopcocks for irrigation should the lens become cloudy. Space does not permit a description of the many modifications of the Nitze instrument, each of which has advantages of its own.

The illumination for cystoscopes may be furnished from a six- or

eight-cell battery or from the street current provided a controller is employed.

Additional instruments required are a Janet syringe, holding from 3 to 8 ounces (89 to 148 c.c.), or an irrigating jar and a catheter.

Asepsis.—Formalin vapor may be employed or the instrument may be immersed in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution or in a 1 to 5000 oxycyanid of mercury solution for ten minutes followed by rinsing in sterile water. The external genitals should be cleaned with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid solution. The examiner's hands are to be likewise sterilized.

Position of the Patient.—The examination is performed with the patient in the lithotomy position and with his buttocks close to the edge of the table. The best form of table to use is one provided with uprights which are surmounted with double inclined rests about 15 inches (37 cm.) above the level of the table for the support of the patient's thighs and knees. The table should also be provided with a wheel within reach of the operator, by turning which it may be raised or lowered at will.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia is generally necessary, though in exceptional cases cystoscopy may be performed without anesthesia. The instillation into the deep urethra of a few drops of a 2 per cent. solution of cocain may be sufficient. The interior of the bladder may be rendered insensitive by first emptying it and then filling it with 5 ounces (150 c.c.) of a warm 0.1 per cent. solution of cocain to which is added 20 drops (1.25 c.c.) of adrenalin and having the whole amount retained for fifteen to twenty minutes. Guyon's method of obtaining local anesthesia consists in injecting into the rectum three-quarters of an hour beforehand a mixture containing:

Antipyrin,	gr. xiv (0.9 gm.)
Laudanum,	♏x (0.6 c.c.)
Water,	℥iii (89 c.c.)

In some adult cases, where the urethra, bladder, or prostate are extremely sensitive, and in children general anesthesia may be required.

Preparations.—The bladder should first be emptied and should then be thoroughly irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid by means of a catheter and Janet syringe until the fluid returns clear, as a satisfactory examination can be made only in a clean bladder. Four to 6 ounces (118 to 178 c.c.) of a saturated solution of boric acid or normal salt solution are then injected into the bladder and allowed to remain so as to smooth out the folds of mucous membrane and furnish space for the cystoscope to be moved about.

If there is sufficient bleeding from the bladder to interfere with the examination, a solution of 1 to 3000 adrenalin chlorid may be injected through the catheter and allowed to remain for about ten or fifteen minutes, when it is drawn off and the bladder is distended.

Everything that will be required during the examination should be placed near at hand, and the cystoscope light should be tested under water before the instrument is introduced.

Technic.—The instrument after being thoroughly tested, is lubricated with glycerin or lubrichondrin and is gently passed into the bladder in the same manner one would pass a sound. Great care should be taken not to use any force in introducing the instrument. If there is any difficulty in making the beak enter the opening in the triangular

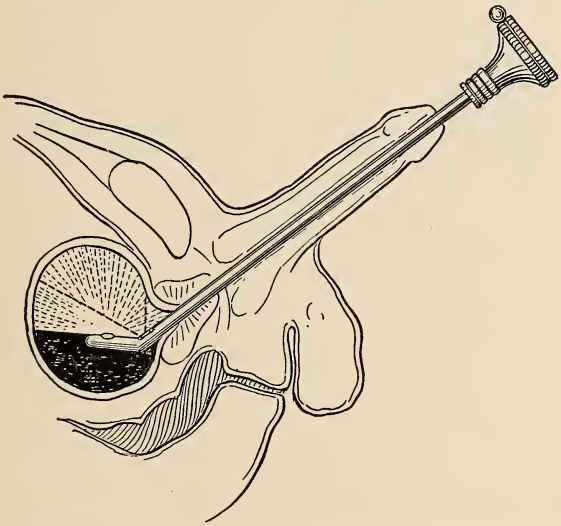


Fig. 644.—Position of the cystoscope for inspection of the roof of the bladder.

ligament, pressure applied on the perineum by the fingers of the free hand will assist in its passage into the membranous urethra. As soon as the instrument has entered the bladder, it can be freely moved about.

The operator then takes his seat with his eyes on a level with the ocular end of the instrument, the light is turned on, and the interior of the bladder is systematically inspected, care being taken not to touch the mucous membrane with the light. It should be remembered that in using a prism form of indirect view cystoscope the image will be reversed, as in the laryngoscope. The instrument being introduced with its beak turned up, the roof of the bladder will first come in view (Fig. 644). In order to see as much of this portion of the bladder as

possible, the instrument should be rotated first in one direction and then in the other and then pushed farther in, repeating these movements until the entire roof has been inspected. By depressing or elevating the shaft a more complete view of the anterior or posterior wall is obtained. The beak of the instrument is then rotated so that it faces toward the floor of the bladder (Fig. 645), and the instrument is withdrawn until the prostate appears as a clear dark red crescent. If hypertrophied, it will appear deformed in the picture, and the degree of its enlargement and its location may be recognized. The instrument is next pushed slowly backward in the median line as far as the fundus,

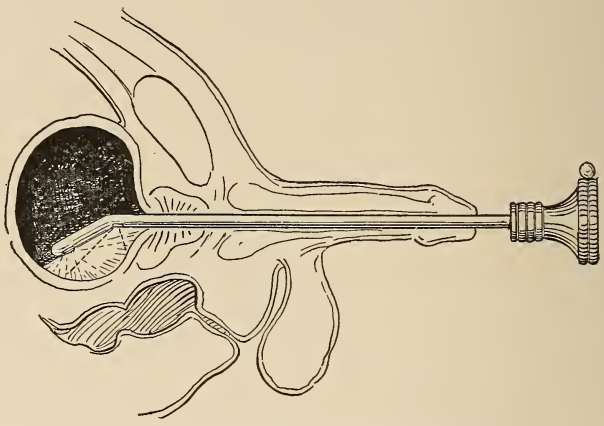


Fig. 645.—Position of the cystoscope for inspection of the floor of the bladder.

the examiner carefully examining the floor of the bladdder as the instrument is advanced. By slightly rotating the instrument first to one side and then to the other a large extent of the floor may be viewed.

The mucous membrane normally has a salmon or grayish-pink tint and is smooth and glossy with the superficial vessels standing out here and there. When acutely inflamed, it becomes a dark red color and has a velvety appearance and there is a general hyperemia so that the small blood-vessels disappear. In chronic inflammation the mucous membrane may take on a grayish tint and the folds appear much thickened. This region should be carefully examined for small stone, tubercular ulcers, and new growths.

Having inspected the floor, the instrument is turned 45 degrees to one side and is gradually withdrawn from the fundus. In this way the opening of the ureter on that side will come to view as an oblique slit or as a small dimple (Fig. 646) in a prominent papilla, and, if it is watched, it will be seen to emit a gush of urine every ten to fifteen seconds. If not

immediately found, the interureteric line, which runs transversely across the central field between the two ureters, should be identified and, by tracing this to one side or the other, the ureteral orifice may be located. The appearance of the ureteral orifice should be carefully inspected for signs of ulceration, erosions, or inflammation which might indicate a diseased kidney on that side, and likewise the character of the urine which escapes should be noted, *i.e.*, whether clear, purulent, or bloody.

The lateral wall is carefully inspected as far as the vesical neck. The instrument is then rotated 90 degrees to obtain a view of the opposite side and it, including the ureter of that side, are examined

FIG. 646.—Appearance of the ureteral orifices.

while the instrument is slowly passed to the fundus again. Following some such scheme, the entire bladder may be inspected except a portion of the posterior wall which is invisible with an indirect view instrument. During the examination it is well to shut off the light at intervals so as to allow the instrument to cool.

At the end of the examination the light is turned off and the instrument is carefully withdrawn, taking care to see that the beak is again turned up before this is done. The patient's bladder is then emptied and irrigated with boric acid solution.

CYSTOSCOPY IN THE FEMALE.

The examination of the female bladder may be performed by using an ordinary male cystoscope or a somewhat shorter female instrument. Such examination, which is less difficult than in the male on account of the short length of the urethra, requires no separate description, as the technic differs in no essential way from the method used in the male. A far simpler method of vesical inspection, however, is by means of Kelly's open straight tubes and atmospheric distention of the bladder.

Instruments.—For cystoscopy according to Kelly's method there will be required: Kelly's specula, or some of their modifications,

an electric head light or head mirror, a Kelly dilator to stretch the external urethral orifice, a urine evacuator to draw off residual urine, alligator forceps for holding cotton swabs, and a ureteral probe

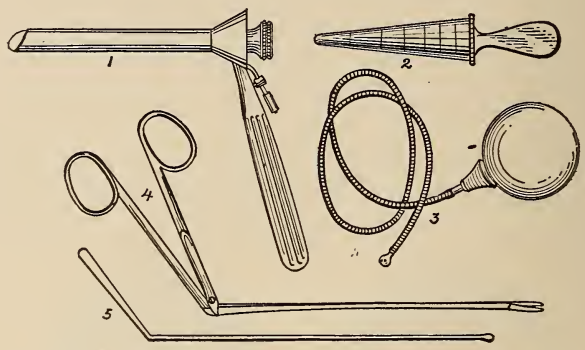


FIG. 647.—Instruments for cystoscopy in the female.
1, Electric-lighted open-tube cystoscope; 2, urethral dilator; 3, urine evacuator; 4, alligator-jawed forceps; 5, ureteral searcher.

for probing the mucous membrane or locating the ureteral orifices (Fig. 647).

The specula consist of cylindrical tubes 3 1/5 inches (8 cm.) long, of equal length throughout, and in sizes of from 1/5 inch (5 mm.)

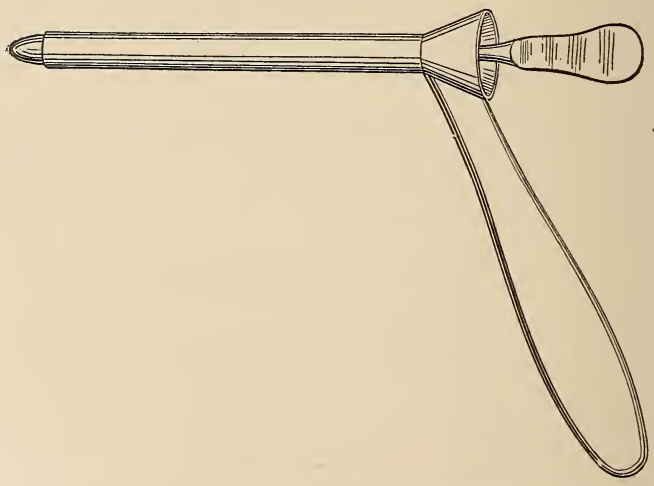


FIG. 648.—Kelly's open-tube cystoscope.

in diameter up to 4/5 inch (20 mm.). Those below No. 12 are generally employed for diagnostic purposes. The tubes are of German silver or nickel-plated, each having a conical expansion at the ocular

end to which is fastened a strong handle (Fig. 648). Each tube is supplied with an obturator having a conical end-piece. The illumination is furnished by reflected light or from an electric head light, the latter being preferable. These specula, however, may be obtained furnished with an electric light at the distal end[1] (Fig. 649), an instrument which simplifies the operation for one not accustomed to the use of a head light.

The urethral dilator is a cone-shaped metallic instrument which gradually increases in size from the point until at the base it measures

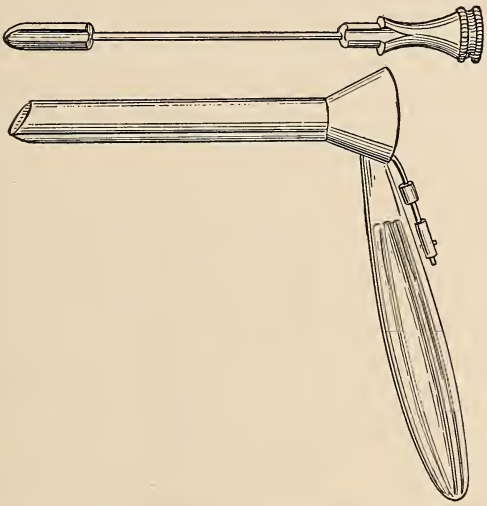


Fig. 649.—Enlarged view of an electric-lighted open-tube cystoscope.

16/25 inch (16 mm.) in diameter. The instrument is graduated so that the examiner can determine the required amount of dilatation.

The urine evacuator is necessary for the purpose of removing the urine that collects in the floor of the bladder and interferes with the examination. It consists of a suction bulb attached by means of a long delicate rubber tube to a small perforated glass bulb. In the Luy's open tube cystoscope an aspirating tube is incorporated in the instrument.

Asepsis.—All the instruments should be boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The operator's hands should be carefully sterilized and the external genitals and mouth of urethra should be cleansed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury.

[1]They are made by the Electro-surgical Instrument Company of Rochester, New York.

Position of Patient.—Two positions are employed, the dorsal and the knee-chest. In the dorsal position the patient lies with the head and thorax resting on the table and the hips elevated 8 to 12 inches (20 to 30 cm.) upon cushions so as to raise the pelvis and permit the bladder to distend with air when the cystoscope is introduced. While the dorsal posture is the least wearing on the patient, it is not suited for stout persons. In such cases, the knee-chest posture, with the knees separated 10 or 12 inches (25 or 30 cm.), is more suitable.

Preparations of Patient.—Before the patient is placed upon the table the rectum and bladder should be emptied.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia is generally sufficient except in very nervous women. A pledget of cotton saturated with a 2 per cent. solution of cocaine introduced upon an applicator within the meatus and allowed to remain for five minutes will anesthetize the urethra sufficiently to allow of its being dilated.

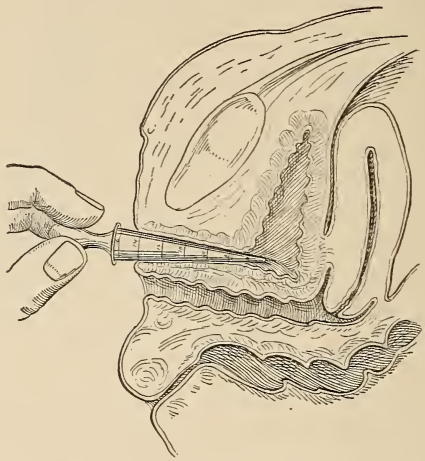


Fig. 650.—Method of dilating the urethra. (Ashton.)

Technic.—As a rule, it is first necessary to dilate the urethral orifice; the rest of the canal, being very dilatable, is easily stretched by the cystoscope in its passage. The dilator is lubricated with one of the Iceland-moss preparations and is introduced into the urethra with a slight boring motion until the required amount of dilatation is reached (Fig. 650). Dilatation to about No. 12 on the dilator is generally sufficient. A speculum of a size from 7 to 10, depending upon the age of the patient, is then selected. It should be grasped in the operator's right hand, the cylinder lying between the index and middle fingers, with the thumb against the obturator, as shown in Fig. 651.

With the fingers of the left hand the labia are separated and the speculum, well lubricated, is introduced through the urethral orifice, whence it is gradually pushed into the bladder following the urethral curve under the pubic arch. Upon removal of the obturator, air rushes in

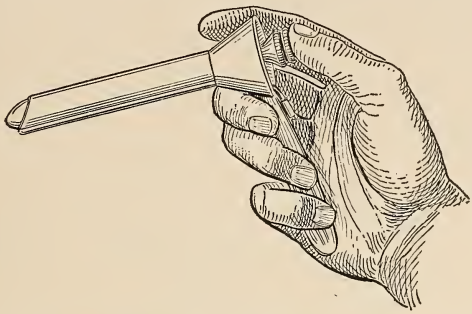


FIG. 651.—Method of holding the open-tube cystoscope during its introduction into the bladder.

distending the bladder. If the bladder fails to distend, it will probably be due to a faulty position of the patient. If, when the patient is in the knee-chest position, the bladder does not balloon up, two fingers may be introduced into the vagina so as to distend it with air. The

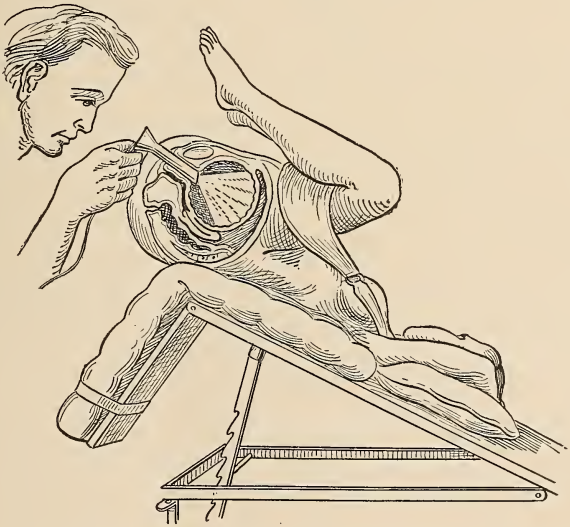


FIG. 652.—Inspection of the female bladder through an open-tube cystoscope.

illumination is then turned on, or, in the absence of a self-illuminated speculum, the light from the electric head light or head mirror is thrown into the bladder through the speculum, and the bladder is systematically examined (Fig. 652).

By alternately moving the speculum from side to side and depressing or elevating the handle all portions of the bladder may be inspected. If the patient is in the dorsal posture, urine soon collects in a pool on the base of the bladder, and this must be removed as often as required by means of the evacuator (Fig. 653). By means of the

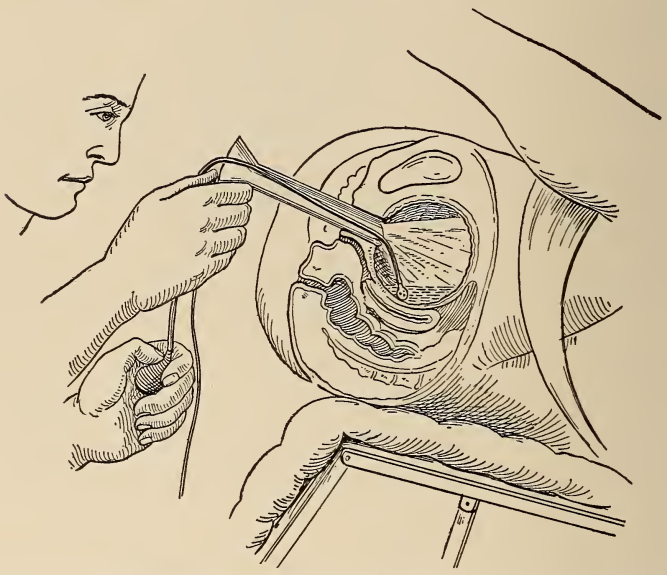


Fig. 653.—Method of removing residual urine during a cystoscopic examination.

cotton mops held in the alligator, forceps mucus, blood, or pus that may obscure a clear view of the mucous membrane may be wiped away.

SKIAGRAPHY.

The X-rays are sometimes used in locating a vesical stone which, from being buried in a pocket or being situated behind the prostate, may escape detection by other means. The success of the skiagraph depends to a large extent upon the composition of the calculus. Oxalate and phosphate stones cast a dense shadow, but those composed of urates and uric acid cast very faint shadows, and so may be missed entirely. The bony walls of the pelvis may likewise interfere and give a negative result.

Therapeutic Measures.

IRRIGATIONS.

Irrigations of the bladder may be employed either for simple cleansing purposes, as is required in preparation for an instrumental

examination or operative procedure, or to produce a local effect upon the mucous membrane. Irrigations are thus of the greatest value in the treatment of various inflammatory affections of the bladder. In acute cystitis, however, on account of the distention produced, they often increase the pain and may aggravate the trouble. They should be employed, however, in acute cases if the bladder does not completely empty itself and there is decomposition of urine. Irrigations are also contraindicated where the bladder cannot hold more than 1 ounce (30 c.c.) of fluid without exciting a desire to urinate; in such cases, instillations should be substituted.

There are two methods of performing vesical irrigation; (1) by injecting the fluid in sufficient quantity to distend the bladder and having it retained a short time before allowing it to escape, and (2) by using a double-flow catheter which allows the fluid to escape as fast as it flows in. In the majority of cases the former is the preferable method to employ, as a certain amount of distention of the bladder is necessary in order to wash out pus, bacteria, and débris from the folds of mucous membrane.

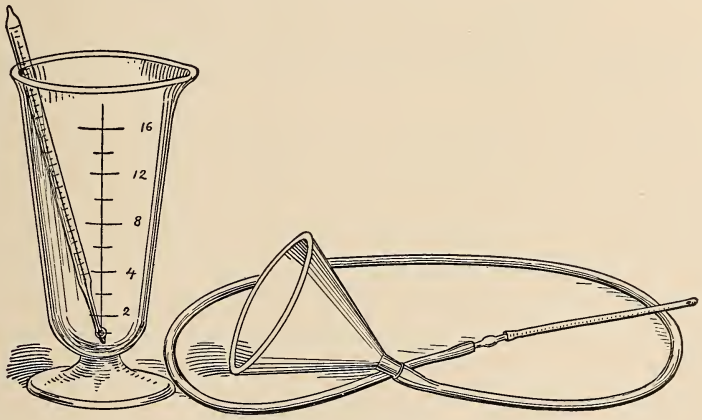


Fig. 654.—Apparatus for bladder irrigations.

Apparatus.—A large glass funnel, 4 feet (120 cm.) of rubber tubing, a soft-rubber catheter, a large glass graduate, a thermometer, and a waste pail are required (Fig. 654).

A double-flow soft catheter (Fig. 655) may be employed in place of the ordinary catheter if desired. When this is used a graduated glass irrigating jar should take the place of the funnel.

Asepsis.—The apparatus is boiled and the thermometer sterilized by immersion for 10 minutes in a 1 to 500 bichlorid of mercury solu-

tion followed by a thorough rinsing in sterile water. The operator's hands should be thoroughly scrubbed.

Solutions Used.—Normal salt solution (ʒi (3.9 gm.) of salt to the pint (473.11 c.c.) of water), a saturated solution of boric acid, silver nitrate 1 to 15,000 to 1 to 5,000, potassium permanganate 1 to 8000 to 1 to 4000, bichlorid of mercury 1 to 100,000 to 1 to 5,000, hydrogen peroxid 20 to 40 per cent., carbolic acid, etc., are among the numerous agents employed.

It is always well to begin the treatment with the weaker solutions and gradually increase the strength as indicated. After an irrigation with a poisonous drug, the bladder should be douched with normal salt solution to prevent any being left for absorption.

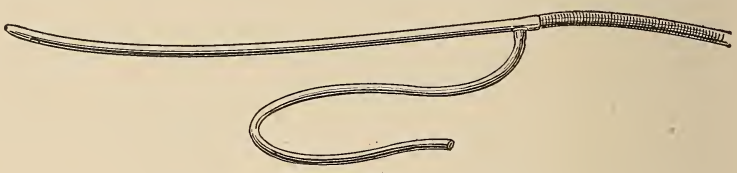


Fig. 655.—Return-flow soft-rubber catheter.

Temperature.—The irrigating fluid should be at a temperature of 100° to 105° F.

Quantity.—The irrigations should be continued until the fluid returns clear. As a rule about 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) of solution will be sufficient.

Frequency.—When there is profuse suppuration and rapid decomposition of urine, the irrigations are employed twice a day. In a mild case daily irrigations or on alternate days will suffice. A lapse of one or two days, however, should intervene when very strong solutions are employed.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal position.

Preparation of Patient.—The bladder should be empty. The external genitals are washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution, and the urethra is irrigated with a boric acid or 1 to 5000 potassium permanganate solution.

Technic. 1. *Single Catheter Methods.*—The catheter, well lubricated, is gently passed into the bladder, and any residual urine is allowed to escape. The funnel is filled with from 3 to 6 ounces (89 to 178 c.c.) of the solution, and the tubing leading from the funnel is attached to the catheter, first taking care to see that air or any cold solution is expelled from the tube. The funnel is then raised 2 or 3 feet (60 to

90 cm.) above the patient and the solution is permitted to slowly flow in and distend the bladder. As soon as the patient complains of the distention, the flow is shut off. After allowing the solution to remain in the bladder a few moments, the funnel is lowered below the level of the bladder and the fluid is allowed to escape into the waste pail (Fig. 656). The funnel is then refilled and the process repeated until the fluid returns clear.

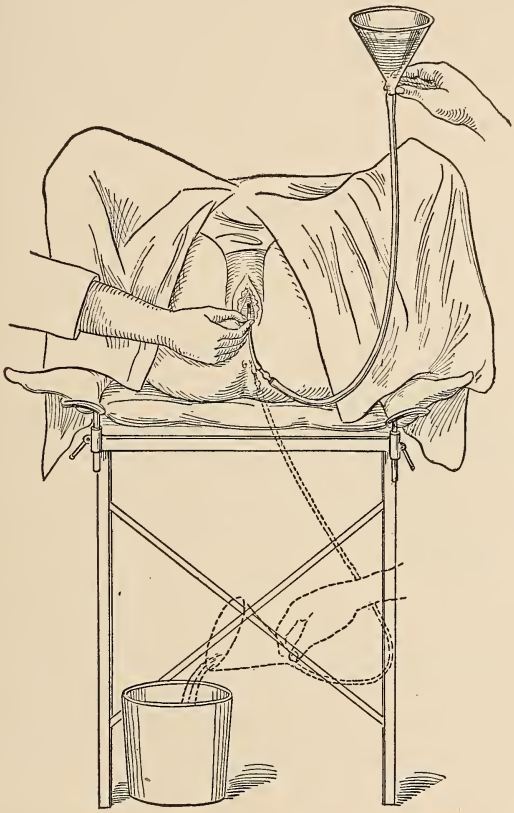


Fig. 656.—Showing the method of irrigating the bladder by the single-catheter method.

In making the irrigation care must be observed not to overdistend the bladder. Just how much can be injected at a time depends upon the individual case, but it should not be sufficient to cause any pain. Entrance of air into the bladder should also be guarded against.

2. *Double-flow Catheter Method.*—The technic varies a little from that just described. The catheter is inserted in the bladder and the irrigating tubing is attached to the inflow tube of the catheter. The reservoir, filled with the entire amount of fluid to be used during the

irrigation, is then raised 2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) above the bladder and the solution is allowed to flow. As fast as it enters the bladder, it is carried off again through the outflow tube (Fig. 657); but, by occasionally compressing the outflow tube, the bladder may be more or less completely filled before the fluid is permitted to escape.

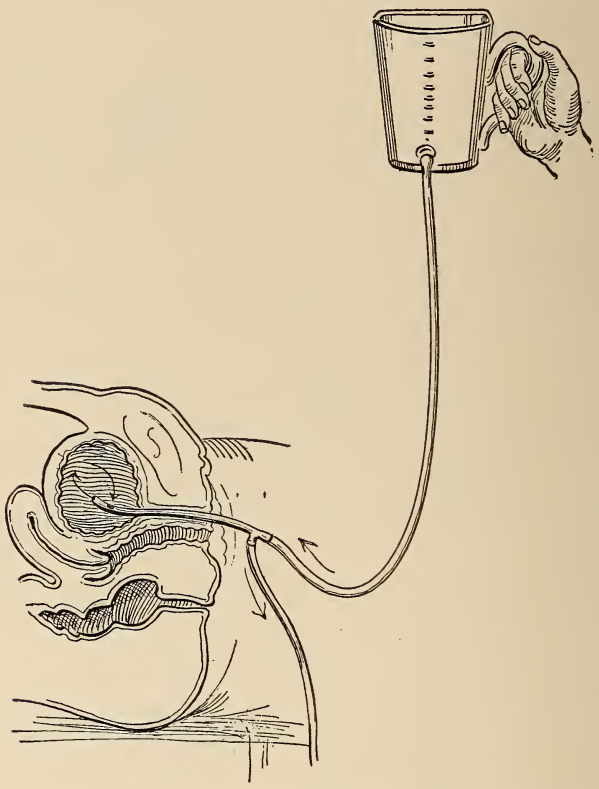


Fig. 657.—Irrigation of the bladder with a double-flow catheter.

AUTO-IRRIGATIONS.

While it is not advisable to allow a patient to irrigate his own bladder in the presence of a severe cystitis, auto-irrigation may be safely performed for the purpose of keeping the bladder clean by those who are compelled to lead a catheter life. The patient should, however, be carefully instructed how to sterilize the catheter, his hands, etc., and in the proper method of performing the irrigation, and he should be fully warned of the dangers of neglecting to follow the strictest rules of cleanliness.

Apparatus.—A douche bag with a capacity of 1 quart (1 liter), 4 feet (120 cm.) of rubber tubing, a T-shaped glass tube, a soft-rubber catheter, and a waste pail comprise the necessary outfit. The T-shaped glass connection is placed between the catheter and the tubing of the reservoir and to its long arm is attached another piece of tubing that leads to the waste pail. A shut-off clip is placed on the tube leading from the irrigator and another upon the waste tube (Fig. 658).

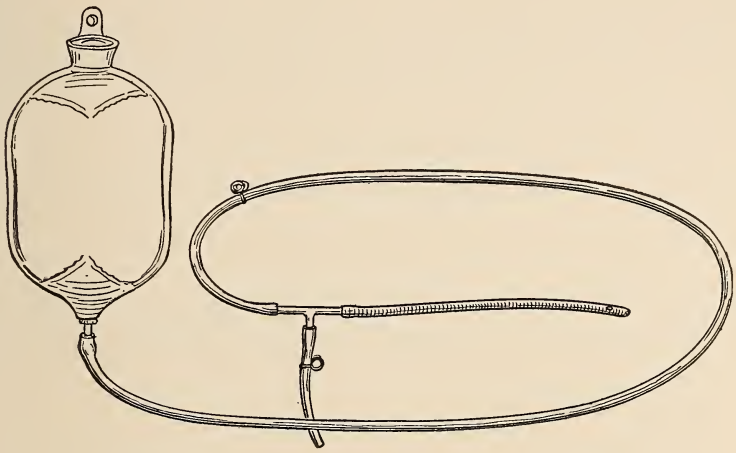


Fig. 658.—Apparatus for auto-irrigation of the bladder.

Solution Used.—It is better not to entrust the patient with strong antiseptic solutions; instead a saturated (4 per cent.) solution of boric acid should be used. It is prepared by dissolving about 5 teaspoonfuls (19 gm.) of boric acid crystals in 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) of hot water.

Position of Patient.—The irrigation is most conveniently given with the patient sitting in a chair and with the waste pail on the floor between the legs.

Technic.—The reservoir is filled with 1 pint (473.11 c.c.) of warm (105° F.) boric acid solution and is hung on a hook about 3 feet (90 cm.) above the level of the bladder. The patient then introduces his catheter into the bladder and draws off the urine. The solution is allowed to flow from the tubing to expel any air or cold fluid, and the tubing is then connected with the catheter. The solution is allowed to flow into the bladder until there is a feeling of distention, when the flow is shut off and the outflow pipe is opened allowing the fluid to escape into the waste pail. The process is repeated until the reservoir is emptied.

INSTILLATIONS.

Instillations differ from irrigations in that a smaller quantity of solution is used and the fluid is allowed to remain in the bladder. Stronger solutions can thus be employed and it is possible to obtain a more lasting effect upon the mucous membrane than from an irrigation. Instillations are very useful in all cases of cystitis, but especially those in which the inflammation is particularly severe about the trigone and vesical neck.

The immediate effect of the instillation is to induce a moderate congestion accompanied by an increased desire to urinate and some pain, but this soon passes off and is followed by reaction and a gradual relief of the symptoms.

Syringe.—A Keyes-Ultzmann syringe will be required (Fig. 659). When, however, it is desired to inject more than 1/2 dram (1.9 c.c.)

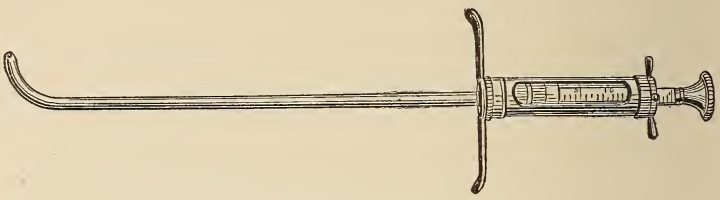


FIG. 659.—Keyes-Ultzmann instillation syringe.

of solution, a soft-rubber catheter and glass syringe of the desired capacity should be substituted for the above.

Solutions Used.—Silver nitrate beginning with a 1 to 1500 solution increased to 5 per cent., protargol 1 to 20 per cent., bichlorid of mercury 1 to 10,000 to 1 to 5,000, a 10 per cent. emulsion of iodoform and glycerin, etc., are often employed.

Quantity.—As a rule about 15 to 30 ♏ (0.9 to 1.9 c.c.) are injected, but when it is desired to medicate a large surface, as much as 1 dram (3.75 c.c.) or more may be used.

Frequency.—Instillations may be employed every other day to every third or fourth day according to the reaction they provoke.

Position of Patient.—The dorsal position is used.

Preparations of Patient.—The bladder should be empty, and if there is residual urine it should be drawn off by a catheter. The external genitals are cleansed and the urethra is irrigated with a boric acid solution.

Technic.—The syringe is first filled with the desired amount of solution. The nozzle, after being well lubricated with lubrichondrin,

is then introduced in the same manner employed in passing any curved urethral instrument (see page 540) until its point lies in the prostatic urethra. This will be when the shaft of the instrument has been depressed between the legs to an angle of a little less than 45 degrees with the horizon. The required amount of medication is then slowly injected into the prostatic urethra, whence it flows over the vesical neck and trigone. In removing the syringe the piston should be first withdrawn a little so as to prevent any solution leaking from it along the urethra.

When using the catheter method of instillation, the same technic as for a posterior irrigation (page 567) is followed.

CYSTOSCOPIC TREATMENT.

In the hands of an expert the cystoscope becomes an instrument of great value in treating vesical lesions. While cystoscopic treatment is more difficult in the male than in the female, such procedures as removing small calculi and foreign bodies, snaring small growths, the curettage of ulcers, the direct application of strong solutions of

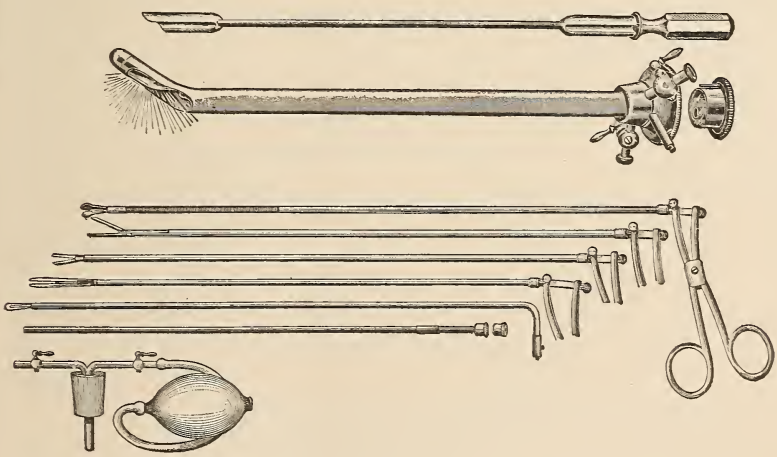


Fig. 660.—Bransford Lewis operating cystoscope. (Lewis in Keen's Surgery.)

silver nitrate to diseased areas by means of a cotton-tipped probe, etc., may be satisfactorily performed, even in the male, by a physician of skill and experience.

Instruments.—For male cases, a direct-view-air-distention cystoscope provided with a perforated window and bulb-aspirator (Fig. 660) is necessary. In the female, Kelly's tubes (page 616) or some of their modifications are employed.

Technic.—The method of exposing and treating diseased areas is performed in the same manner in which the bladder is inspected (pages 613, 618) and requires no further description here. In making applications of strong solutions, however, care should be taken to bring the solution only in contact with the diseased area and not to saturate the applicator with an excess of solution.

CATHETERIZATION OF THE BLADDER.

Catheterization of the bladder is indicated in all cases of complete retention of urine and in some cases of partial retention, as, for example, in prostatic hypertrophy when the residual urine amounts to more than 2 ounces (59 c.c.). Retention may be the result of obstruction from stricture, spasm of the compressor urethræ muscle, hypertrophy or congestion of the prostate, clots of blood, calculi, foreign bodies or tumors in the bladder or urethra, perineal abscess, traumatism, etc., etc., and as the result of defective expulsion power of the bladder through impairment of the nervous mechanism, as in hysteria, certain diseases of the brain and spinal cord, shock, fevers, after the use of certain drugs, following rectal operations, etc., etc. The probable cause of the retention should, if possible, be ascertained before attempts to pass a catheter are made.

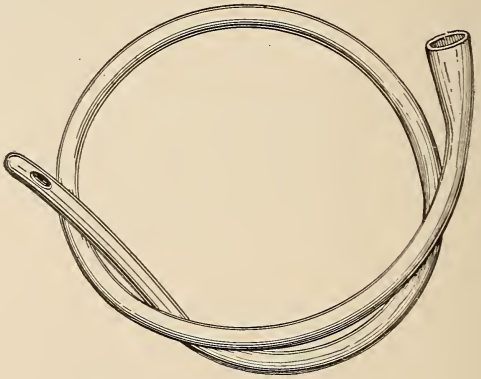


Fig. 661.—Soft-rubber catheter.

Retention may come on suddenly or gradually. In the presence of acute retention there is great desire, but inability, to urinate, accompanied by a severe and aching pain in the abdomen and perineum. Unless the condition is relieved, the symptoms rapidly grow worse and the patient lapses into a comatose state. When the retention is gradual in onset, these severe symptoms are sometimes absent even in cases of

enormous distention, and it may be only the dribbling of the overflow from the overdistended bladder that the patient complains of, the so-called "false incontinence." Physical examination will, however, reveal an elastic fluctuating tumor occupying the hypogastrium,

Fig. 662.—Silver catheter.

which is dull on percussion and becomes more prominent with the patient standing erect.

Instruments.—An assortment of the various forms of catheters should be on hand. For the ordinary cases of retention, uncomplicated by stricture or an enlarged prostate, a soft-rubber Nélaton (Fig. 661) or a blunt silver catheter with a short curve (Fig. 662) may be employed.

Fig. 663.—Gum-elastic olivary catheter.

In the presence of strictures a gum elastic olivary catheter (Fig. 663) and a set of Gouley's tunneled catheters and filiforms (Fig. 664) will be required. In place of the latter a whip catheter (Fig. 665) may be employed. This consists of a flexible gum elastic catheter tapering off for several inches into a filiform.

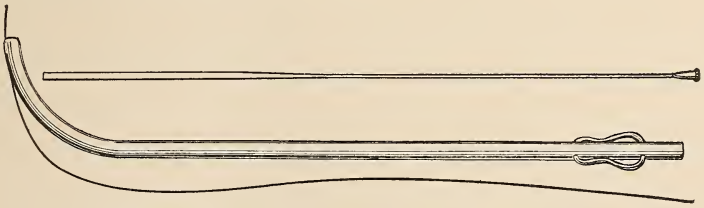


Fig. 664.—Gouley's tunneled catheter and filiforms.

The best form of catheter to use when the prostate is enlarged is a Mercier coudé catheter (Fig. 666). The slight angle at the end of this instrument permits it to override an obstruction. Guyon's mandarin coudé catheter (Fig. 667) and a *long-curved* silver prostatic catheter (Fig. 668) should also be provided. The caliber of the instruments for this class of cases should be fairly small, say from 15 to 18 French.

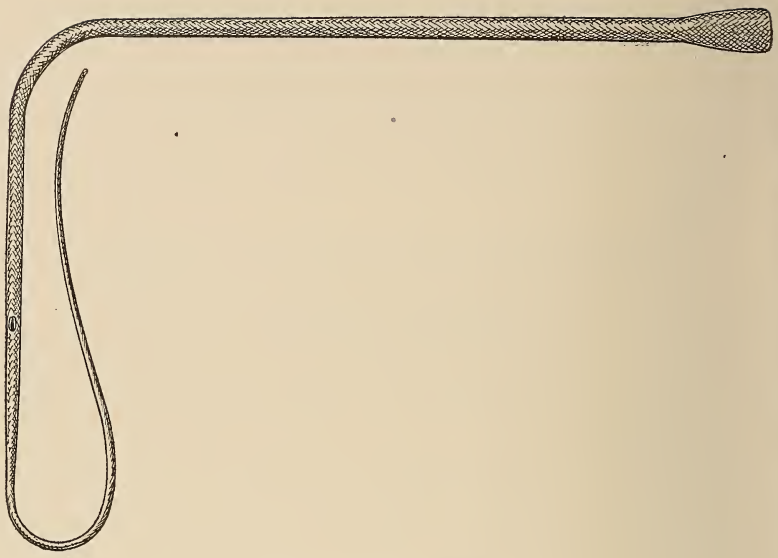


Fig. 665.—Whip catheter.

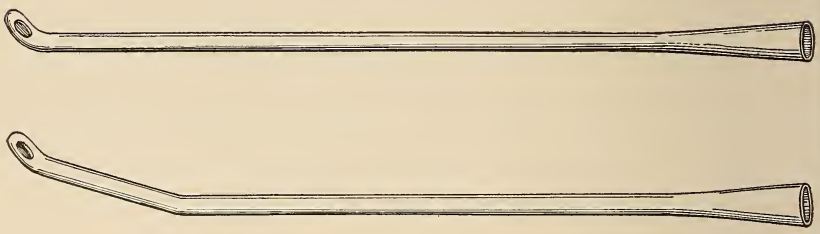


Fig. 666.—Catheters with a coudé and bicoudé curve.

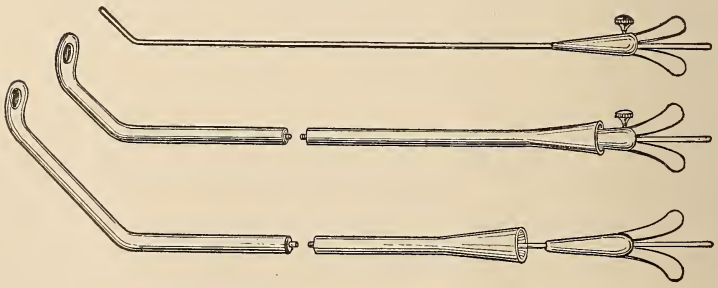


Fig. 667.—Guyon's mandarin coudé catheter.

Asepsis.—The greatest care should be taken to avoid infection of the bladder. Metal and rubber catheters, as well as the better make gum elastic instruments are boiled for five minutes. Instruments that will not stand boiling are sterilized by formalin vapor (page 540) or by immersion in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution followed by rinsing in sterile water. The operator's hands are to be sterilized as carefully as for any operation.

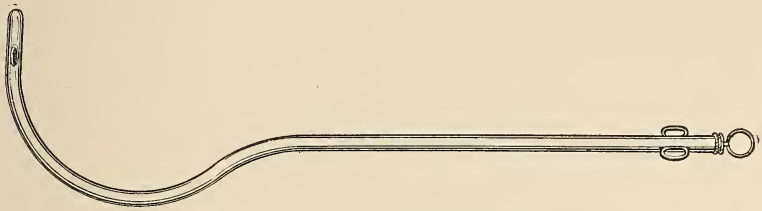


FIG. 668.—Silver prostatic catheter.

Quantity of Urine Withdrawn.—Except when the distention is slight and of short duration, the bladder should never be emptied completely at the first catheterization. As the result of long standing vesical distention there occurs a dilatation of the ureters and renal pelvis with changes in the kidney structure, and a sudden evacuation of the urine is apt to be followed by suppression of urine; or hemorrhage from the vesical mucous membrane or kidneys may result from the sudden relief of pressure upon the distended veins. Therefore, not more than 8 ounces (236 c.c.) of urine should be withdrawn at the first catheterization, gradually increasing the amount at subsequent catheterizations, until at the end of three or four days the bladder is completely emptied each time.

Frequency.—As a rule, in complete retention the bladder requires emptying every four to eight hours. When the catheter is employed for withdrawing the residual urine of prostatic hypertrophy the frequency will depend upon the amount of residual urine. Thus, if this amounts to from 2 to 4 ounces (59 to 118 c.c.), one daily catheterization before the patient retires in the evening will suffice; if it amounts to from 4 to 6 ounces (118 to 178 c.c.), the catheter should be used twice a day, *i.e.*, in the evening and morning; larger quantities of residual urine demand that the bladder be emptied three or four times a day.

Position of Patient.—Catheterization should always be performed with the patient recumbent, as shock or other unexpected symptoms may appear at any time during the operation. The patient is therefore placed in the dorsal position with his shoulders slightly raised and thighs somewhat flexed and rotated slightly outward.

Preparation of Patient.—The glans penis and meatus should be washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution and then sterile water. The urethra is irrigated with a warm saturated solution of boric acid or a 1 to 5000 solution of potassium permanganate.

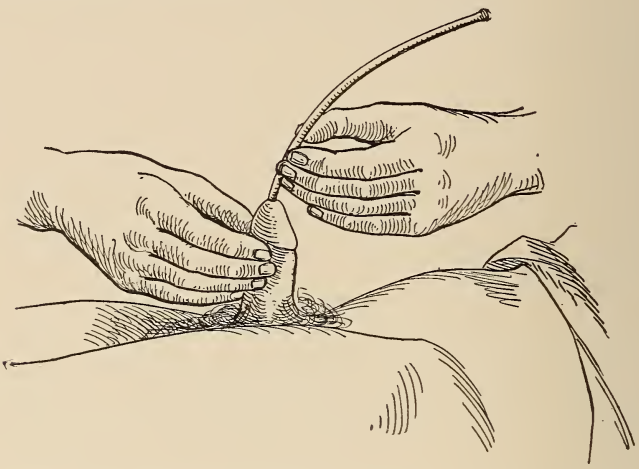


FIG. 669.—Showing the method of passing a soft-rubber catheter.

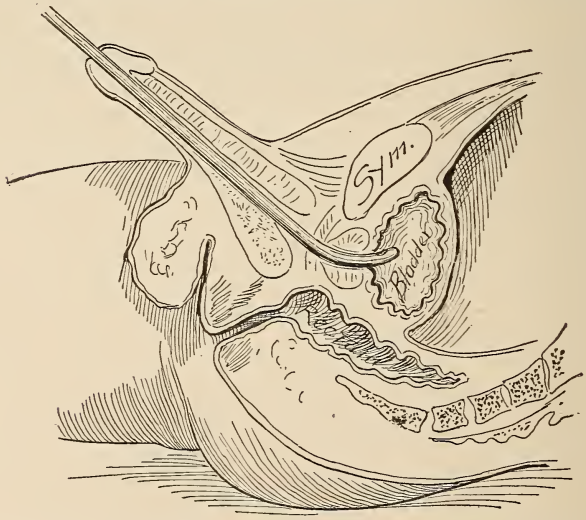


FIG. 670.—Showing soft-rubber catheter passed into the bladder.

Technic.—1. *In Cases Uncomplicated by Stricture or Enlarged Prostate.*—A *full-sized* soft-rubber catheter is tried first. It is well lubricated and, while the penis is held upright, is slowly fed into the urethra a little at a time (Fig. 669). If the catheter becomes obstructed, the

penis should be put upon the stretch to obliterate any wrinkles in the mucous membrane, and the instrument is again advanced as before or by rotating it while the attempt is made to make it pass. In this way a soft instrument can usually be made to enter the bladder when the retention is simply due to defective expulsive power. In withdrawing a catheter the instrument should be compressed between the thumb and forefinger, or the tip of the finger should be placed over the opening at the proximal end so as to prevent the urine which remains in the catheter from dripping out and wetting the patient's clothes.

In cases of spasmodic stricture, failing in attempts to pass a soft instrument, a full-sized metal catheter should be resorted to. Such a catheter is passed precisely as one would a sound (see page 540). When the point of the instrument has been introduced as far as the

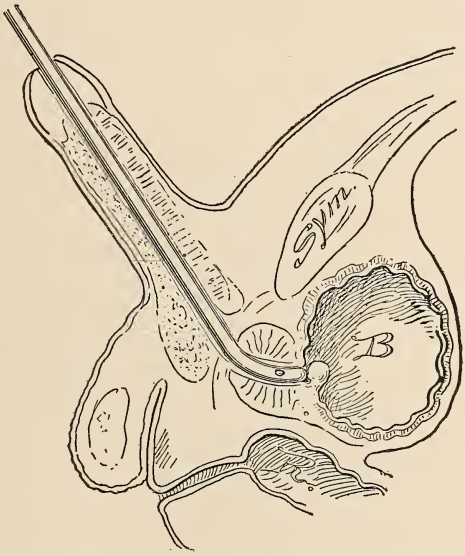


Fig. 671.—Showing an ordinary catheter obstructed by an enlarged middle lobe of the prostate gland.

obstruction, it should be held pressing steadily against the face of the stricture for a few minutes until the spasm passes off, when it may be easily slipped into the bladder.

2. *In the Presence of Stricture.*—In dealing with a retention due to stricture a small soft-rubber catheter should be given first trial. If unsuccessful, attempts may be made to pass an olivary pointed catheter. If this fails, a filiform should be introduced through the stricture (see page 545) and a Gouley tunneled catheter passed over this as a guide,

or, in its stead, a whip catheter may be employed. Should the stricture be of such small caliber that it is only possible to insert a filiform, the latter should be left in place to act as a capillary drain, taking care, however, to fasten it in such a way that it cannot slip out (page 638). In this way the bladder will empty itself in a few hours and, by the end of twenty-four hours, sufficient dilatation will usually have taken place to allow the passage of a tunneled catheter. Failing to pass even a filiform the bladder should be aspirated (page 639).

3. *In the Presence of Prostatic Hypertrophy.*—A soft flexible catheter should be tried and then a coudé catheter. The latter will often succeed where a soft catheter fails because the bend of the tip of this instrument keeps the point in contact with the upper wall of the urethra and thus permits it to more easily override a median prostatic enlargement (Fig. 672). Sometimes, if an ordinary coudé catheter

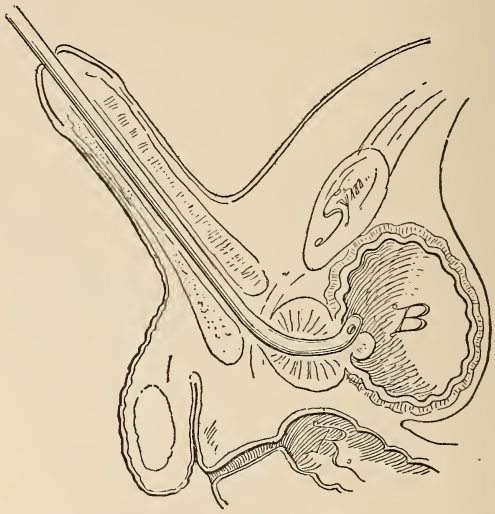


Fig. 672.—Showing a coudé catheter passing the obstruction.

will not pass, an elbowed catheter with a stylet can be made to do so. With this instrument it is possible to elevate the point more sharply, when obstructed, by withdrawing the mandarin a little, so that the point of the instrument passes upward over the obstruction into the bladder.

After repeated and unsuccessful efforts with the above instrument a metal prostatic catheter should be tried before resorting to aspiration. Great gentleness should be employed in its introduction to avoid making a false passage. Sometimes assistance in finding its point may be derived from placing a finger in the rectum.

CATHETERIZATION IN THE FEMALE.

Catheterization of the female bladder is a simple procedure. It should always be done, however, by direct sight; the old method of passing a catheter by touch carries with it the great risk of infection.

Instruments.—A glass female catheter, 5 inches (13 cm.) long and

Fig. 673.—Glass female catheter. (Ashton.)

1/5 of an inch (5 mm.) in diameter with a gentle curve in opposite directions at both ends (Fig. 673), is the best instrument to employ.

Asepsis.—The catheter is boiled for five minutes and the operator's hands are carefully scrubbed in soap and water, followed by immersion in an antiseptic solution.

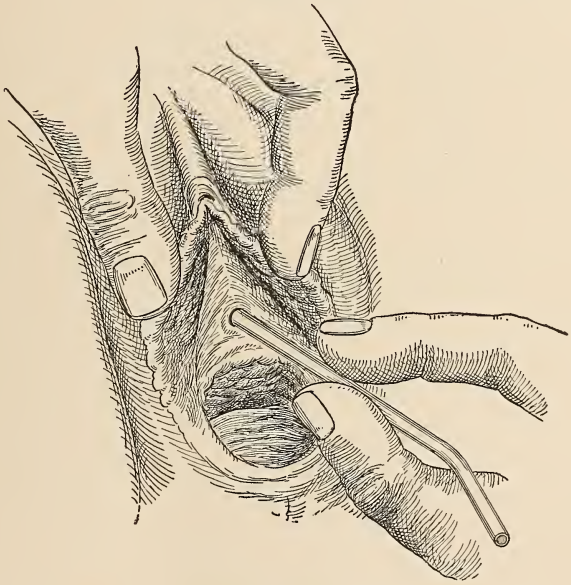


Fig. 674.—Method of passing a catheter in the female. (Ashton.)

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal position with the thighs flexed and the legs well separated.

Preparations of Patiant.—The external genitals and meatus are cleansed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Technic.—The operator separates the labia with the thumb and forefinger of the left hand so as to expose the meatus. The catheter, held near the proximal end in the fingers of the right hand, is then introduced through the urethra into the bladder (Fig. 674). When the bladder has been emptied, the forefinger is first placed over the proximal end of the catheter to prevent the escape of the urine it contains (Fig. 675) and the instrument is then withdrawn.

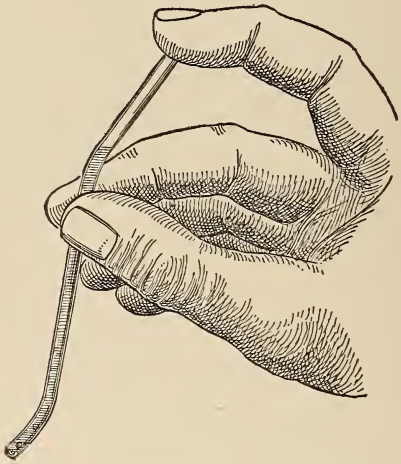


Fig. 675.—Showing the method of preventing urine dripping from the catheter as it is withdrawn. (Ashton.)

CONTINUOUS CATHETERIZATION.

A catheter may be introduced into the bladder and left in place in cases where drainage of the bladder for a brief period is desired. It may be employed in chronic cystitis accompanied by the presence of large amounts of pus, frequent urination, and tenesmus, in vesical hemorrhage, and in cases of obstruction from an enlarged prostate where the constant introduction of a catheter causes spasm or hemorrhage, or where catheterization is difficult. The bladder is thus put at rest and at the same time is kept constantly emptied, the beneficial effects of which are shown by a rapid decrease of the inflammation and congestion, decline of the fever, and relief of the pain and tenesmus. Continuous catheterization is also indicated in wounds of the urethra or after certain operations upon the urethra when it is desirable to prevent the contact of infected urine with raw surfaces.

At first, when the catheter is inserted, there may be a feeling of weight in the perineum, but this soon passes off. In some instances a

mechanical urethritis is set up which may persist until the instrument is removed and, if neglected, urethral abscess or extension of the infection backward into the bladder may result.

Instruments.—A simple soft-rubber catheter of about 18 French with the eye near the end or the retention catheters of Pezzer or Malecot may be employed. The Pezzer catheter (Fig. 676) has a flange to

Fig. 676.—The Pezzer retention catheter.

rest against the vesical neck, while the Malecot instrument (Fig. 677) has wings on either side. When introduced over a stylet, these projections are made to disappear, but reappear when the stylet is removed.

Asepsis.—The catheter should be thoroughly sterilized by boiling or by formalin vapor and, if the latter method is employed, care must be taken to remove all trace of the formalin by thoroughly rinsing the

Fig. 677.—The Malecot retention catheter.

catheter in sterile water. The operator's hands should likewise be perfectly sterile.

Duration.—This will depend upon the toleration of the urethra. In some cases, continuous drainage may be kept up for over two weeks without the catheter causing much irritation; in others, the presence of an instrument in the bladder produces so much irritation and vesical spasm that it cannot be used at all.

Preparation of Patient.—The glans penis and meatus are washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury, and the urethra is thoroughly irrigated with a mild antiseptic solution.

Technic.—1. *By the Ordinary Catheter.*—If a simple rubber catheter is employed, it is well lubricated and is then introduced in the usual way until its eye lies just within the bladder. It is quite important that the point of the catheter be not introduced too far, for, if so, it will not only fail to drain the bladder properly, but will irritate the vesical floor. To insure that the instrument is properly placed, it should first be introduced into the bladder until the urine flows freely and then slowly withdrawn until the flow just stops, when it is pushed

into the bladder again, this time for a distance of 1/4 inch (6 mm.). It is then secured in place as follows:

The portion of the catheter protruding from the meatus is thoroughly dried and all grease is removed. Then four pieces of adhesive plaster, each about 4 inches (12 cm.) long and 1/4 inch (6 mm.) wide, are secured to the catheter at the point it emerges from the meatus in such a way that one strip lies upon the dorsum, one on the ventral surface, and one on either side of the penis. Each strip is carried back over the foreskin and is made to adhere to the body of the penis. An additional strip of adhesive 1 inch (2.5 cm.) wide is placed horizontally about the penis back of the corona, covering the four small strips (Fig.

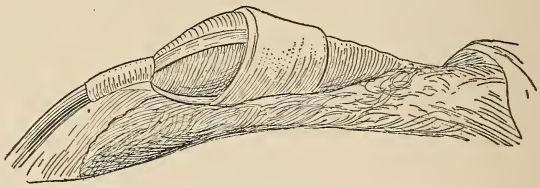


FIG. 678.—Showing the method of securing a catheter in the bladder. (After Sinclair, *Polyclinic Journal*, July, 1908.)

678). Care should be taken, however, not to have this strip entirely encircle the penis. The penis is then wrapped in sterile gauze and is supported over one groin by a T-bandage. If upon inspection it is found that the urine escapes freely, the free end of the catheter is finally connected with a drainage-tube which conducts the urine to a receptacle at the side of the bed. The receptacle should be half-full of some antiseptic solution.

If the retained catheter is employed in a case of long standing retention where it is dangerous to empty the bladder at once, an intermittent form of drainage may be employed by discarding the drainage-tube and simply inserting a plug in the end of the catheter, which is removed at definite intervals and an increasing quantity of the urine drawn off each time until it is considered safe to empty the bladder completely, when the above method is used.

2. *By the Self-retaining Catheter.*—In inserting a special self-retaining catheter, a stylet curved to the shape of a sound is introduced within the instrument so as to obliterate the projecting collar or wings. When the catheter is in place, the stylet is withdrawn, thus allowing the bladder end of the catheter to expand again so that the catheter is retained in place unless some force is used in withdrawing it. In spite of this, however, it is safer to fix the catheter in place by the method above

described, after first withdrawing it until the resistance shows that the terminal enlargement is at the vesical neck.

After-care.—The catheter rapidly becomes encrusted with lime salts, blood, or pus and should, therefore, be changed every two or three days to permit of its being cleansed. At this time the urethra and bladder should be thoroughly irrigated with a mild antiseptic solution and the catheter thoroughly sterilized before it is reinserted. In the presence of pus or blood the bladder may be irrigated through the catheter as frequently as seems indicated.

If urethritis develops, the urethra should be irrigated once or twice daily with a saturated solution of boric acid. This may be accomplished by withdrawing the catheter until its extremity lies in front of the bulbous urethra and then flushing out the urethra from behind through the instrument by means of an irrigating apparatus. The catheter is then pushed back to its original position. Constant watch should be kept lest ulceration of the urethral wall develop at the peno-scrotal junction from pressure of the catheter. To avoid this, the penis should be supported in such a position that the sharp angle formed at the peno-scrotal junction when the organ hangs vertically is obliterated.

ASPIRATION OF THE BLADDER.

Suprapubic aspiration of the bladder is indicated as a temporary expedient when there is complete retention of urine and catheterization is impossible from the presence of a tight stricture, prostatic enlargement, or from any other cause. The operation is easily performed and, if properly done, is a safe procedure. At times after a single aspiration the congestion is so much lessened that within a few hours it becomes possible to pass a catheter, or the patient voids spontaneously, but, if necessary, the bladder may be emptied several times a day for a week or more by this method without danger.

Where a permanent drainage for some time is desired, suprapubic puncture by means of a trocar and cannula may be performed. Puncture through the perineum or rectum, on the other hand, should be avoided as unsafe.

Instruments.—For temporary relief an aspirating needle and syringe should be employed. The needle should be fairly fine and about 3 inches (7.6 cm.) long. The Potain aspirator (Fig. 679) is the best to use. This instrument has already been described (page 255).

When a trocar and cannula are used, a curved instrument with the convexity of the curve upmost should be obtained. A scalpel to nick the skin is also required.

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. sodium carbonate solution and the operator's hands are sterilized in the usual way as for any operation.

Site of Puncture.—The puncture is made in the median line about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) above the pubes. The extraperitoneal space above the pubic bone is increased when the bladder is distended and a needle or trocar may be inserted here without danger of entering the peritoneum. When a number of punctures are made, the site may be changed a little each time.

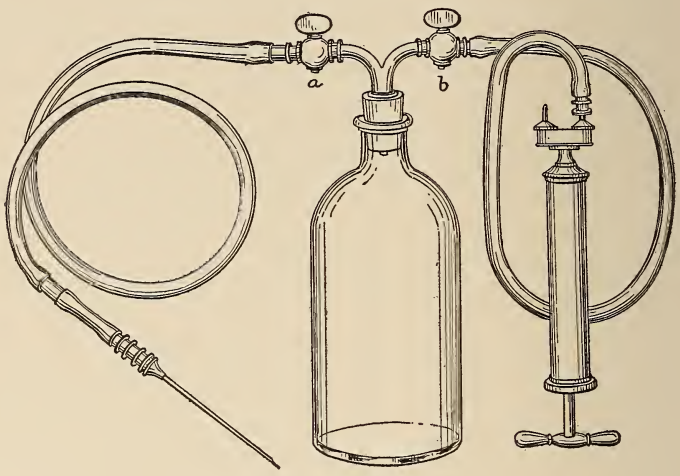


FIG. 679.—Potain aspirator.

Position of Patient.—The operation may be performed with the patient recumbent or partly sitting up.

Preparations of Patient.—The pubes should be shaved and then washed with green soap and warm water, followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Anesthesia.—Sufficient anesthesia is obtained by freezing the surface tissues with ethyl chlorid or salt and ice to render the operation painless.

Technic.—1. *By the Aspirator.*—The suprapubic region is first carefully percussed to make sure that there are no coils of intestine lying in front of the bladder. The aspirator is assembled, tested, and the air in the bottle exhausted. A small nick is then made in the skin at the spot chosen for the puncture and the needle, held in the right hand with the index-finger placed on its shaft as a guide, is introduced through the tissues, directed downward and backward, until a lessened

resistance signifies that the bladder has been entered. This will usually be when the needle has entered from 1 1/2 to 2 1/2 inches (4 to 6 cm.), depending upon the thickness of the abdominal wall. The aspirator is then attached and the vacuum is extended to the needle-point by opening the inflow cock. If no urine is withdrawn, the needle is introduced still further until fluid is reached. The contents of the bladder are then partly or completely emptied, depending upon the duration of the retention and the amount of the distention (see page 631).

In removing the needle, care should be taken to keep up the suction until the needle is completely withdrawn, otherwise some urine may escape from the tip of the needle as it traverses the prevesical space and cause an infection. The site of the puncture is finally covered with a piece of sterile gauze held in place by adhesive plaster.

2. *By the Trocar and Cannula.*—A small nick is made in the skin as before at the chosen site and through this the trocar and cannula with the convexity up is inserted into the bladder, care being taken to guard against the instrument entering too deeply by placing the index-finger on the shaft of the instrument as a guide. The trocar is then removed and the cannula is secured in place for permanent drainage by means of tapes. A rubber drainage-tube leading to a receptacle half filled with an antiseptic solution is fastened to the cannula.

The bladder may be irrigated through the cannula once or twice daily if it contains much pus. The cannula should be removed and sterilized every few days. To do this a small catheter is passed through the lumen of the cannula into the bladder where it is maintained while the catheter is being cleansed. The cannula is then easily reintroduced over the catheter as a guide.

The permanent cannula should be removed as soon as it is possible to pass a catheter through the urethra without difficulty. The sinus remaining is allowed to close by granulation.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE KIDNEYS AND URETERS.

Anatomic Considerations.

The Kidneys.—The kidneys are two bean-shaped organs, each measuring on an average from 4 to 4 3/4 inches (10 to 12 cm.) in length and 2 1/2 inches (6.3 cm.) in breadth. They lie deeply situated in the abdominal cavity on each side of the vertebral column, behind the peritoneum embedded in a loose layer of areolar tissue, the perirenal fat, resting upon the diaphragm, the quadratus lumborum, and psoas muscles. Surrounding the perirenal fat is a layer of fascia,

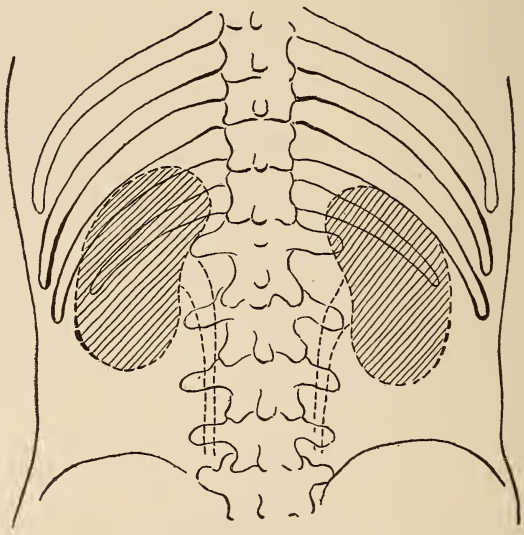


FIG. 680.—The position of the kidneys and course of the ureters from behind.

complete except along the inner border of the kidney and at its lower pole, which is firmly attached to the spine and diaphragm, and serves to anchor the kidney in place.

The position of the kidneys from behind corresponds to the space between the upper border of the twelfth dorsal vertebra and the first and second, or third, lumbar vertebræ. The right kidney generally lies about 1/3 to 1/2 inch (0.7 to 1.3 cm.) lower than the left on

account of the position of the liver above it, the upper extremity of the right kidney usually reaching to the level of the lower border of the eleventh rib and that of the left to the upper border of the eleventh rib. The inferior poles of the kidneys reach to within 1 1/2 inches (4 cm.) on the right and to within 2 inches (5 cm.) on the left of the crest of the ilium. During deep inspiration or when the patient stands erect the kidney will descend to a somewhat lower level. The long axis of the kidney is directed obliquely downward and outward, so that the superior poles lie from 1/2 to 1 inch (1 to 2.5 cm.) nearer the median line than the lower poles.

Anteriorly, the position of the kidney may be mapped out by passing a horizontal line through the umbilicus and a vertical line from the

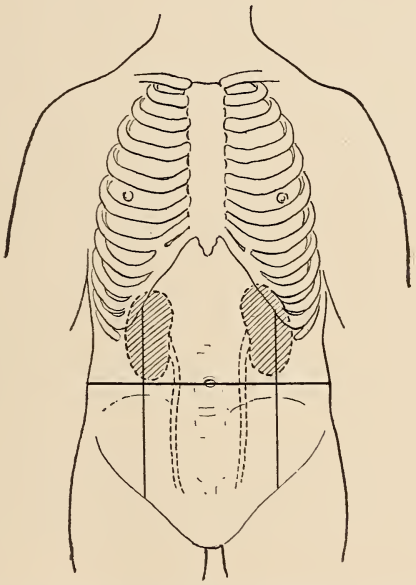


FIG. 681.—The kidneys and ureters from the front.

middle of Poupart's ligament to the costal border perpendicular to the horizontal line—the former passes just below the lower poles of the kidneys, while the latter cuts the long axis of the kidney at the junction of its middle and outer thirds. If the kidney lies to the outer side of the vertical line or below the horizontal umbilical line, it is indicative of enlargement or a displacement.

Relations of Kidneys.—Behind, the kidneys are in relation with the diaphragm, quadratus lumborum, psoas muscles, and with the last dorsal, iliohypogastric, and ilioinguinal nerves. The close relations

of these nerves account for the referred pains sometimes encountered in diseases of the kidneys.

In front of the right kidney are the under surface of the right lobe of the liver, the second portion of the duodenum, the ascending colon, and the hepatic flexure. The left kidney is in relation in front with the spleen, the fundus of the stomach, the tail of the pancreas, the splenic vessels, and the descending colon.

Ureters.—The ureters are two in number, one for each kidney. They are about 12 inches (30 cm.) in length and have a caliber equal to that of a goose quill. The ureter begins at the neck of the renal pelvis opposite the lower pole of the kidney and passes down on the psoas muscle behind the peritoneum to the brim of the pelvis. A line drawn on the abdominal wall vertically upward from the junction of the middle and inner thirds of Poupart's ligament roughly represents the course of the ureter from the kidney to the pelvic brim.

The ureter in the male, after crossing the pelvic brim and the common iliac vessels, passes downward and backward in front of the sacroiliac joint and enters the parietal attachment of the posterior false ligament of the bladder. It then passes forward and inward to the base of the bladder which it enters just above the seminal vesicle, first passing under the vas deferens.

The ureter in the female, after crossing the pelvic brim and iliac vessels, passes downward and backward along the lateral wall of the pelvis as in the male. It then enters the base of the broad ligament and passes down parallel with the cervix and upper portion of the vagina, at a distance of about 1/2 inch (1 cm.) external to the cervix and posteriorly to the uterine artery. After crossing the upper third of the vagina the ureter enters the bladder opposite the middle of the vagina. The pelvic portion of the ureter in the female is thus readily palpated through the vagina or rectum.

The ureters enter the bladder 1 1/2 to 2 inches (4 to 5 cm.) apart and, after passing obliquely forward and inward for a distance of 3/4 of an inch (2 cm.) through the bladder wall, they appear on the mucous membrane about 1 1/4 inches (3 cm.) apart and the same distance posterior to the internal urethral orifice. Through this oblique insertion of the ureters into the bladder regurgitation of urine when the bladder is distended is effectually guarded against.

The ureters are composed of three coats, an outer fibrous, a middle or muscular, and an internal or mucous. Normally the walls are collapsed and lie in contact. The lumen of the ureter presents three constrictions and two intermediate dilated portions. The constric-

tions are: First, about 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) from the hilum of the kidney; second, at the point where the ureter crosses the pelvic brim; and, third, at its entrance into the bladder.

Diagnostic Methods.

In suspected disease of the kidney or ureter a careful history of the past ailments and present symptoms should first be obtained. Frequently pain will be the only symptom complained of. In such case its exact location should be determined; that is, whether limited to the loin or radiating along the course of the ureter, and whether unilateral or bilateral. Severe attacks of pain radiating from the loin down toward the bladder, testicle, and thigh are strongly suspicious of calculus. The character of the pain should also be ascertained; whether it is dull or aching, or paroxysmal and lancinating, and whether continuous or periodic. Periodic attacks of sharp pain accompanied by a considerable diminution in the amount of urine secreted, followed by relief of the pain and an abundant flow of urine are characteristic symptoms of hydronephrosis due to a movable kidney. The patient should also be questioned as to the character of his urine, *i.e.*, whether bloody, etc., supplemented by inquiry as to special points along the lines mentioned in the sections upon the urethra and bladder. This is followed by a thorough physical examination.

Having obtained all the information possible by these means, the actual examination of the organ under consideration may be taken up.

The methods available for examination of the kidneys and ureters include inspection, palpation, percussion, urinalysis, cystoscopic examination, ureteral catheterization, segregation of urine, determination of the functional capacity of the kidneys, skiagraphy, and exploratory incision.

INSPECTION.

On account of the deep situation of the kidney in the abdomen, inspection gives no information if the kidney is normal. When, however, the kidney is greatly enlarged it may produce a visible swelling in the loin or protrude anteriorly and cause a bulging of the lower ribs upon the side affected.

Inspection should be performed from in front with the patient lying flat on the back, and also from behind and laterally with the patient standing and bending forward, so as to make any bulging more prominent through relaxation of the abdominal muscles.

PALPATION OF THE KIDNEYS.

Palpation is by far the most valuable of the methods of physical diagnosis for determining the presence of enlargement or displacements of the kidney. While the normal kidney can seldom be felt, unless the individual is very thin and the abdominal wall is lax, and then it is only possible to palpate the lower pole of the kidney, an increase in the size of the organ or undue mobility is readily recognized. By palpation it is also possible to determine the sensitiveness of the kidney and in the presence of a tumor, its characteristics—namely, its size, shape, and whether soft, hard, or fluctuating.

Palpation is sometimes performed with one hand, so placed that the fingers press in the loin while the thumb lies on the abdomen beneath the costal arch, but a more satisfactory method is the bimanual.

Position of Patient.—The patient should lie flat on the back with the head and shoulders elevated upon a small pillow and the lower extremities flexed so as to thoroughly relax the abdominal walls. Sometimes in cases of movable kidney additional information may be elicited by palpating with the patient standing, his body bent forward from the hips, and with his hands resting on the arm of a chair for support; or else the patient may assume the lateral position, lying on the sound side, and with the thighs slightly flexed (see Fig. 683).

Preparations of Patient.—Care should be taken to have the colon empty at the time of the examination; if necessary a cathartic should be administered the night before for this purpose. All clothing that is likely to interfere with the examination should be removed.

Anesthesia.—If palpation is difficult through rigidity of the abdominal muscles or from increased sensitiveness, a general anesthetic may be required in order to make a satisfactory examination.

Technic.—The examiner should stand upon the side he wishes to examine. When palpating the right kidney the fingers of the left hand are placed under the loin just below the last rib and the right hand is placed flat on the abdomen below the costal arch (Fig. 682); to palpate the left kidney the position of the hands is reversed. The patient is instructed to breathe deeply but quietly, and any manipulations should be gentle in character to avoid inciting muscular contraction. The kidney descends during inspiration and, if at this time forward pressure is made with the hand under the loin and the hand upon the abdomen is pressed backward under the ribs, the kidney, if enlarged, will be felt. If the kidney is displaced, it may be caught between the two hands as it descends during deep respiration and may

be prevented from returning to its former position. In the presence of a tumor, the size, shape, and consistence of the growth should be determined and its sensitiveness ascertained. Palpation of the normal kidney causes a peculiar sensation which has been likened to pressure

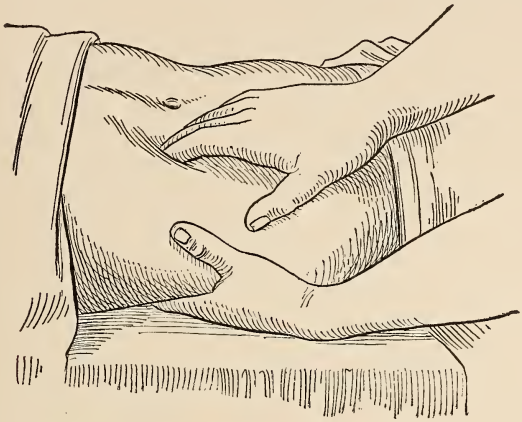


Fig. 682.—Palpation of the kidney with the patient in the dorsal position.

on the testicle; actual pain will be elicited, however, in the presence of some tumors, kidney calculus, or pus formation.

Tumors of the colon, gall-bladder, pylorus, spleen, or a pedunculated ovarian or uterine growth may be mistaken for a renal tumor or a

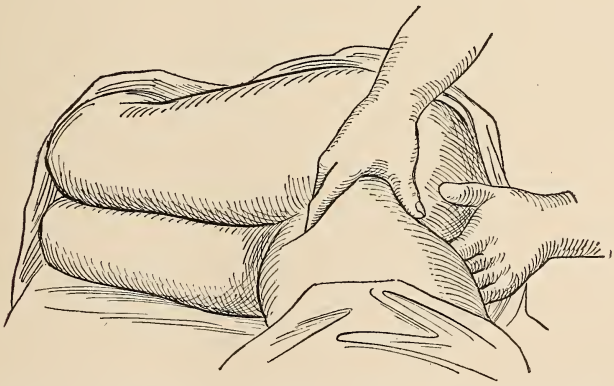


Fig. 683.—Palpation of the kidney with the patient on the side.

movable kidney. The symptoms complained of and the relation of the colon to the tumor, however, will usually settle the diagnosis. The colon lies in front or to the inner side of the kidney and, if necessary, it should be inflated to more accurately map it out.

At times the so-called "ballottement of the kidney" may be obtained if the kidney is freely movable. To elicit this sign sudden sharp pressure is applied to the loin by the posterior hand, when, if movable or enlarged, the kidney will be driven forward with a slight impact against the hand on the abdomen in front.

PALPATION OF THE URETERS.

The ureters may be palpated through the abdominal wall, through the vagina, or through the rectum. Abdominal palpation is only of value if the patient is thin and the abdominal walls lax, and then it is only possible to palpate the ureter if thickened or if it contains a calculus. In some cases, however, if inflamed and painful, the ureter may be traced from the kidney pelvis to the pelvic brim from the pain elicited on palpation. Through the vagina it is possible to palpate the ureter from the base of the broad ligament to its entrance into the bladder. Calculi, thickening, or inflammation of this portion of the ureter is thus readily recognized. In the male by rectal examination the ureter may be palpated in its course from the pelvis to the bladder.

Positions of Patient.—For abdominal palpation the patient should lie flat on the back with the head and shoulders slightly elevated and the thighs flexed.

Vaginal or rectal palpation is performed in the dorsal position with the thighs flexed.

Preparations of Patient.—The bladder and bowels should be empty at the time of examination.

Technic.—1. *Abdominal Palpation.*—The examiner stands on the side to be palpated and first locates the promontory of the sacrum by deep palpation with the examining hand. The ureter crosses the pelvic brim at a point about 1 1/4 inches (3 cm.) to the side of the promontory and a little below it. A thickened ureter may be palpated at this point if the patient has thin, relaxed abdominal muscles. Beginning at this point, the ureter may be traced upward along its course by making deep pressure along the outer border of the rectus muscle (Fig. 684). If the ureter is inflamed, palpation will elicit pain. On the right side such pain must be differentiated from that of cholecystitis or appendicitis.

2. *Vaginal Palpation.*—The right hand is employed to palpate the right ureter and the left hand for palpation of the left ureter. The index-finger is inserted in the vagina and is carried to the vaginal fornix

corresponding to the ureter to be palpated. From this point it is pushed upward and outward toward the pelvic wall, and a careful search is made for the ureter which will be recognized as a flat cord passing forward and inward from the pelvic wall around the cervix to

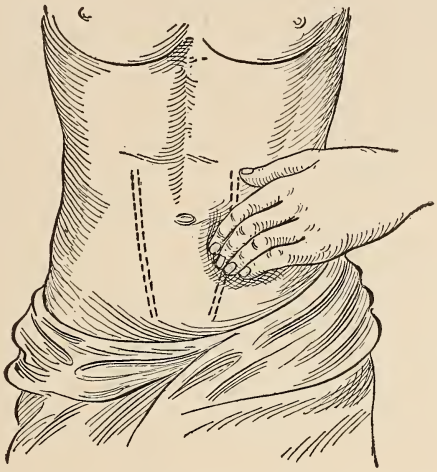


FIG. 684.—Abdominal palpation of the ureter.

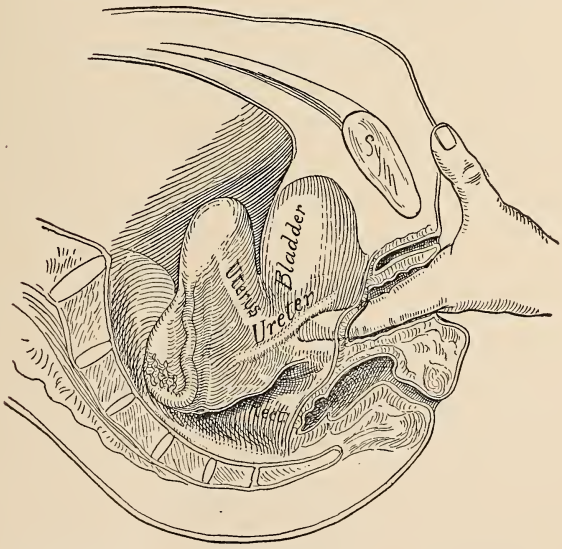


FIG. 685.—Vaginal palpation of the ureter. (Ashton.)

the bladder (Fig. 685). Sometimes, by means of a bimanual examination, with one hand placed on the abdominal wall and exerting downward pressure the ureter may be more satisfactorily examined.

3. *Rectal Palpation.*—The right hand palpates the right ureter and *vice versa.* The index-finger well lubricated is inserted into the rectum and is carried upward a little higher than the level of the base of the seminal vesicle. The finger is then turned toward the lateral wall of the pelvis and the ureter is sought by moving the finger backward and forward. It will be recognized as a flat cord-like structure

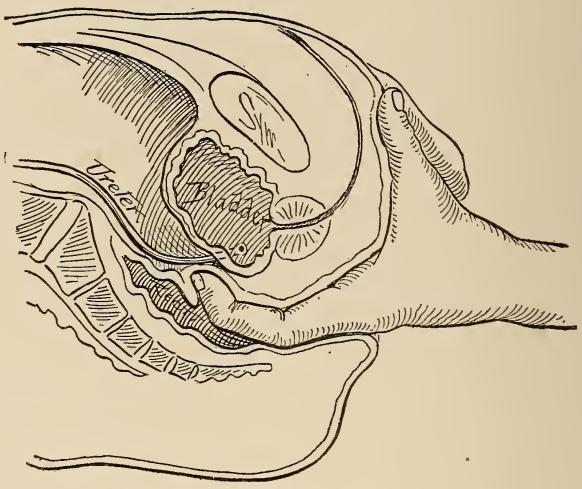


FIG. 686.—Palpation of the ureter per rectum.

passing at first downward along the side of the pelvis and then forward. It may be traced as far as the bladder and will be recognized passing forward and inward from the pelvic wall to the base of the bladder, where it will be felt a little above the seminal vesicle.

PERCUSSION.

Percussion of the kidney is of slight value unless the organ is greatly enlarged. At best it is difficult on account of the thick layer of muscles in the dorsal and lumber regions and the depth of the kidney from the anterior abdominal wall. In fat individuals the difficulties are increased in proportion. Percussion is important, however, for the purpose of showing the position of the colon in relation to a tumor occupying the region of the kidney and in differentiating growths of the kidney from the spleen and liver.

Position of Patient.—To percuss from behind the patient should lie face downward with a firm cushion or several pillows under the abdomen to make the lumbar region more prominent (Fig. 687).

For anterior percussion the patient lies in the dorsal posture with the legs extended.

Preparations of Patient.—The colon must be emptied so as not to obscure the results.

Technic.—It is necessary to employ very strong percussion to outline the organ, but in fat individuals even this may yield unsatisfactory results. In a normal case the kidney dulness will be found to extend about 2 inches (5 cm.) below the last rib, merging above into that of

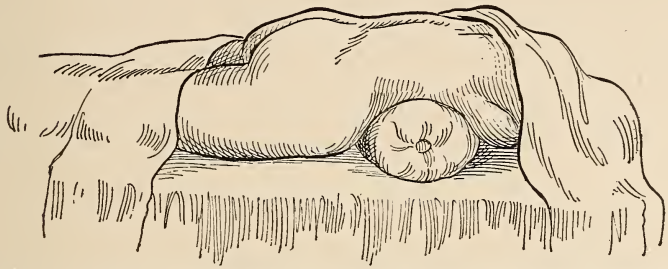


FIG. 687.—Position of the patient for percussion of the kidneys from behind.

the liver or spleen. In a large renal growth percussion will give dulness extending outward and downward beyond the normal limits, with colon resonance in front or internal to the tumor.

Tumors of the spleen or liver may give much the same area of dulness, but the colon resonance will be behind. Inflation of the colon (page 493) may be necessary before its position can be accurately determined.

URINALYSIS.

The examination of the urine is of the greatest importance. It should comprise a complete physical, chemical, microscopical, and bacteriological analysis. Abnormality may be due to general diseases, renal diseases, or to lesions in the lower genitourinary tract, so that it is not sufficient to simply recognize a departure from the normal, but the seat of the trouble, *i.e.*, whether in the bladder, ureter, or kidney, must be determined and, if the ureters or kidneys are affected, which side is involved as well. For this purpose the cystoscope and ureteral catheter are of the greatest aid. Other methods for determining the source of abnormal urinary constituents have already been described (see page 596).

CYSTOSCOPY. (See page 610.)

CATHETERIZING THE URETERS.

The use of the ureteral catheter is of the greatest diagnostic aid in diseases of the kidney or ureter, as it is possible by this means to collect urine separately from each kidney for analysis uncontaminated by contact with the bladder or urethra, and to explore the entire length of the ureter from the bladder to the kidney pelvis. This method of examination is thus of value in determining whether both kidneys are present, in estimating the functional capacity of either kidney, and in the presence of blood or pus in the urine in determining whether its source is the kidney or the ureter and from which side it comes. It is also of the greatest aid in recognizing stricture or calculus of the ureter, hydroureter, hydronephrosis, etc.

Ureteral catheterization has certain drawbacks that should be mentioned. Under the most favorable conditions it requires considerable skill to catheterize the ureters, and in some cases, complicated by the presence of tight urethral strictures, enlargement of the prostate, tumors, or thickening of the bladder mucous membrane it may be impossible. Then there is always present the danger of carrying infection from the bladder into a healthy ureter or kidney. With proper aseptic precautions in performing the operation, however, this may be obviated.

Instruments.—Catheterizing cystoscopes, like the exploring cystoscopes, are of two types, the direct view and the indirect view.

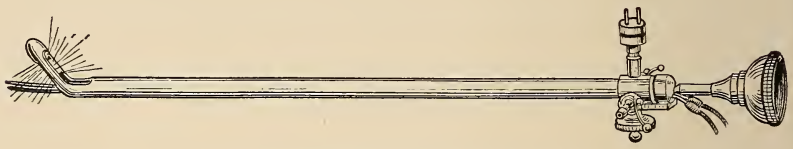


Fig. 688.—Bransford Lewis cystoscope.

The direct view cystoscope, of which the Brenner, Brown, Bransford Lewis, Elsner, etc., instruments are types, are arranged with the light either on the convex side of the beak, or with a window both on the convexity and concavity so that the light is shed in both directions, and are provided with a straight observation telescope having a window at the distal end. The catheter chambers are placed on the under surface of the telescope so that the catheters protrude at the lower part of the field of vision in a straight line. An obturator takes the place of the telescope when the instrument is being inserted into the bladder.

The indirect catheterizing cystoscope, such as the Nitze, Casper, Albarran, Bierhoff, Buerger, etc., have the light upon the concave side of the beak, while the image is reflected at right angles, by means of a prism, to the eye-piece at the proximal end. The catheter chambers are enclosed within the sheath of the instrument lying above the telescope. A small movable tongue or finger, which can be raised or lowered by means of a screw at the ocular end of the instrument, is provided for the purpose of changing the angle of the catheters as they emerge from the instrument. Irrigating cocks are provided with both styles of cystoscope.

Instruments may also be obtained with which it is possible to employ either the direct or indirect methods of observation and catheterization, as McCarthy's composite cystoscope, which has both indirect

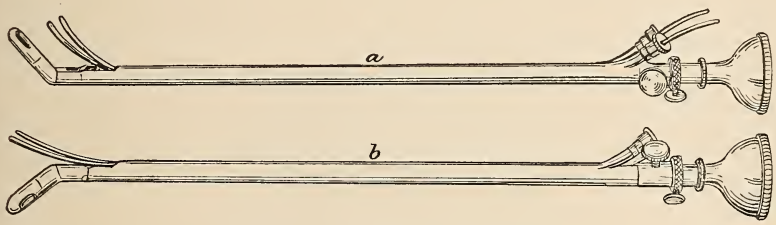


Fig. 689.—The Bierhoff cystoscope.

a, Showing the instrument with the telescope in position for catheterization; *b*, showing the telescope rotated within the sheath to facilitate removal of the instrument.

and direct view telescopes and an indirect double catheterizing attachment, and the universal cystoscopes of Tilden Brown and Bransford Lewis, which combine in one instrument direct and indirect observation and double catheterization by either the direct or indirect method.

While the choice of the make of instrument must rest with the individual operator, there is no doubt that in the majority of cases it is easier to catheterize with the direct view instrument, exceptions being the presence of intravesicular hypertrophy of the prostate and a trabeculated bladder, in which class of cases the indirect view instrument is essential; on the other hand, it is far easier to locate the ureteral orifices by indirect view.

The catheters, which are of silk elastic material about 24 inches (60 cm.) long and 5 to 7 French in size, should be of different colors to differentiate them. The distal end is either blunt or olive pointed. Before using, it should be seen that the catheters are smooth and the eyes perfect; the patency of the catheters should also be tested by

injecting water through them. They are best kept at full length in glass tubes plugged with cotton at either end.

For the purpose of diagnosing calculi the end of the catheter may be dipped in melted wax (2 parts of dental wax and 1 part of olive oil) and allowed to harden in the air (Fig. 690). On coming in contact with a stone scratch marks will be produced on the wax tip. The wax catheters can only be used, however, with the direct view instrument and to avoid scratching the wax they should be threaded through the instrument from the vesical end backward.

FIG. 690.—Wax-tipped ureteral catheter.

In addition to the ureteral catheters an irrigating jar or a Janet syringe holding 3 to 8 ounces (89 to 148 c.c.) of solution and a soft-rubber catheter should be provided for irrigating the bladder.

Illumination for the cystoscope may be obtained from a six- or eight-cell battery or from the street current provided a controller is employed.

Asepsis.—The cystoscope should be well cleaned with tincture of green soap and water and is then placed in a 1 to 20 carbolic acid solution or 95 per cent. alcohol, or it may be sterilized by formalin. Before using, it should be rinsed off in a saturated solution of boric acid. The catheters are sterilized by boiling for one or two minutes in plain water, care being taken to wrap them separately in gauze to prevent their sticking together and to place them at full length in the sterilizer. The examiner's hands are carefully sterilized in the usual way.

Position of Patient.—The patient may be in the lithotomy position with the buttocks close to the edge of the table, or as preferred by some operators in a semirecumbent posture. The table should be provided with uprights which are surmounted with double inclined rests for the thighs and knees.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia is usually sufficient. It is obtained by the instillation into the deep urethra of a small quantity of a 2 per cent. solution of cocain or by filling the empty bladder with 5 ounces (150 c.c.) of a warm 0.1 per cent. solution of cocain to which is added 20 drops (1.25 c.c.) of adrenalin. This must be retained for at least fifteen to twenty minutes. Guyon's method may also be employed (see page 612). In some few cases it may be necessary to employ

general anesthesia; for children general anesthesia should always be used.

Preparations of Patient.—The external genitals should be cleansed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The bladder is then emptied and thoroughly irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid by means of a catheter and a large syringe until the fluid returns clear. Four to 6 ounces (118 to 178 c.c.) of a saturated boric acid or normal salt solution are then injected into the bladder and allowed to remain for the purpose of distention.

If hemorrhage from the bladder is sufficient to interfere with the operation, a 1 to 3000 adrenalin chlorid or 1 to 15000 silver nitrate solution should be injected through the catheter and allowed to remain in the bladder for ten to fifteen minutes before it is distended.

Technic.—1. *Direct Catheterization.*—The cystoscope and catheters having been thoroughly tested, the instrument, well lubricated with

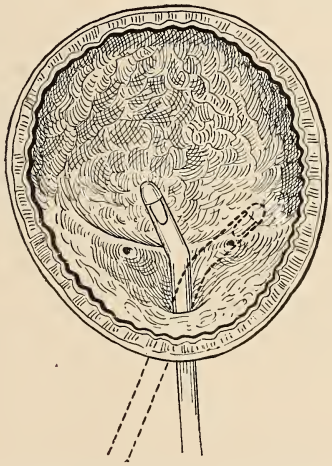


Fig. 691.—Catheterization by the direct method, showing the cystoscope as introduced and with the vesical end deflected toward the ureter.

glycerin or lubrichondrin and with the obturator in place, is introduced into the bladder. The obturator is then removed and the catheterizing telescope is inserted in its place, after which the light is turned on and the ureteral orifices are sought for. They are located at the upper angles of the trigone about 3/4 inch (2 cm.) from the median line and 1 inch (2.5 cm.) from the internal opening of the urethra. By first locating the apex of the prostate and then pushing the instrument in about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) the interureteric line which passes between the two ureters, forming the base of the trigone, will come to

view and if this is traced to one side or the other the orifice of the ureter will be recognized in the lateral angle of the trigone. It may appear either as a slit or as a dimple on the apex of a papilla, and, if carefully watched, urine will be seen coming from it in intermittent spurts. It may be extremely difficult to locate the ureter, but a careful search will usually reveal it. In all manipulations of the cystoscope it is of the utmost importance to employ extreme gentleness otherwise bleeding will supervene and interfere with the examination.

With the direct view cystoscope the instrument is not rotated about an axis, but the beak is kept constantly pointing upward while the vesical end is turned from one side to the other or up and down as the case may be (Fig. 691). The mouth of the ureter having been located, the heel of the cystoscope is brought close to it (Fig. 692) and

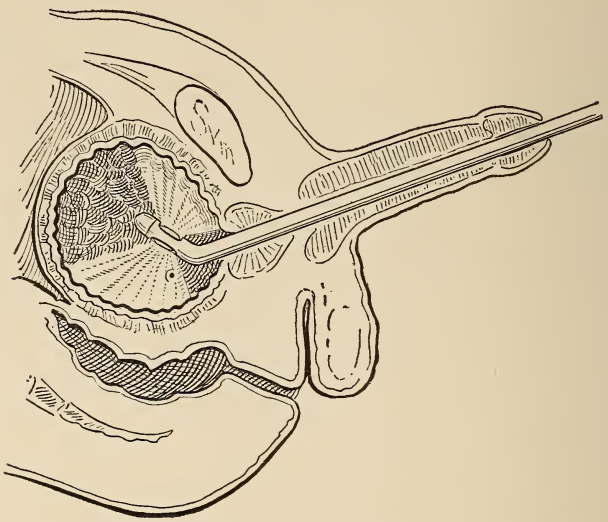


Fig. 692.—Catheterization by the direct method, showing the heel of the cystoscope brought close to the mouth of the ureter.

an attempt is made to engage the catheter in its lumen. The catheter is then slowly and gently threaded up the ureter to the desired distance (Fig. 693). If the purpose of the catheterization is simply to withdraw urine from the ureter, the catheter is introduced 3 to 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.); in exploring the ureter for stone or stricture, or to determine whether pus has its origin in the ureter or kidney pelvis, the catheter should be passed as far as the renal pelvis—13 to 15 inches (32 to 37 cm.). The other ureter is located and catheterized in the same manner.

The light is then extinguished and the catheterizing attachment is first carefully removed and then the sheath, keeping the catheters in position in the ureter by threading them through the instrument as it is withdrawn. Unless the catheters are of different colors, they should be labeled "left" or "right" in order to distinguish them. The first urine that flows is discarded and the ends of the catheters are then wiped off and inserted into sterile bottles plugged with cotton. A catheter may become plugged with mucus, blood clots, or pus. If so about 15 ♏. (1 c.c.) normal salt solution may be injected through it by means of a syringe.

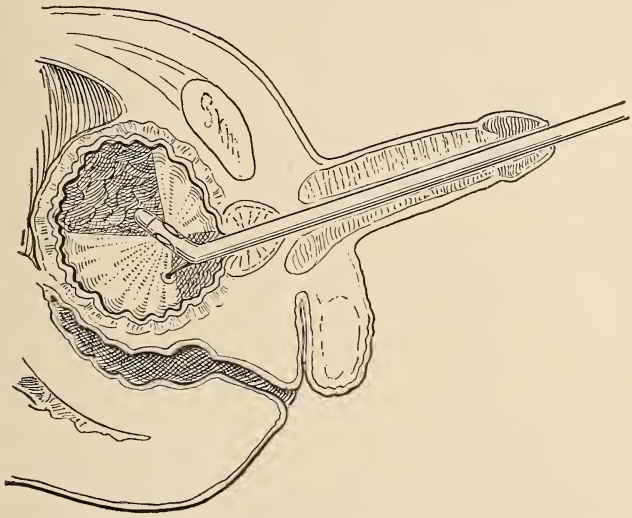


FIG. 693.—Catheterization by the direct method, showing the catheter entering the ureter.

From 2 to 4 ounces of urine are, as a rule, sufficient for examination. While the urine is being collected, the patient's legs should be released from the crutches holding them and he should be allowed to assume as comfortable a position as possible. At the completion of the operation the catheters are carefully removed and the bladder is irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid.

2. *Indirect Catheterization.*—The instrument, well lubricated, is introduced into the bladder and is then rotated completely around so that its beak looks posteriorly. The prostate is thus located and by rotating the instrument through an angle of 30 to 45 degrees the lateral ridge of the trigone may be traced running backward at an angle from the prostate. At the point of the junction of this ridge with the interureteric line will be found the ureteral orifice. It should be remem-

bered that with this form of instrument the image will appear inverted, that is, the prostate will appear at the upper portion of the field instead of at the lower. Having located the ureteral orifice the instrument

Fig. 694.—Catheterization by the indirect method, showing the cystoscope in position.

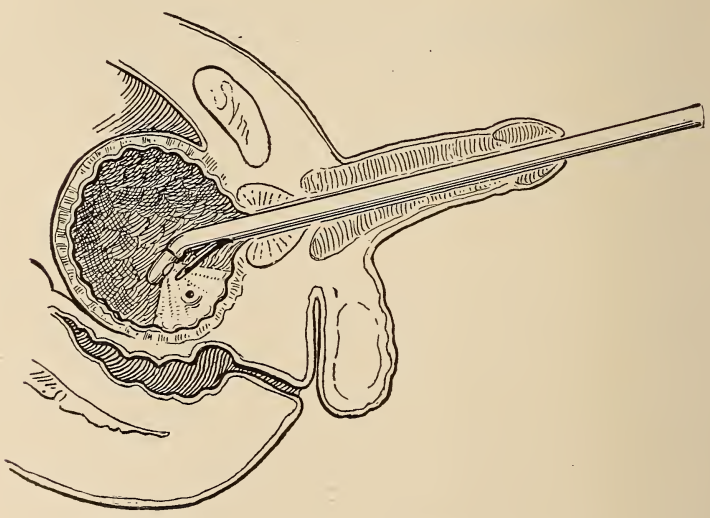


Fig. 695.—Catheterization by the indirect method, the catheter being pushed into the instrument until its tip passes slightly beyond the ureteral orifice.

is brought close to it (Fig. 694) and the catheter is pushed gently forward until its tip passes slightly beyond it (Fig. 695). The small director is then elevated slightly (Fig. 696) and the catheter is again

pushed forward. If it misses the orifice, the instrument is withdrawn a little and a second attempt made to introduce it. By pushing the

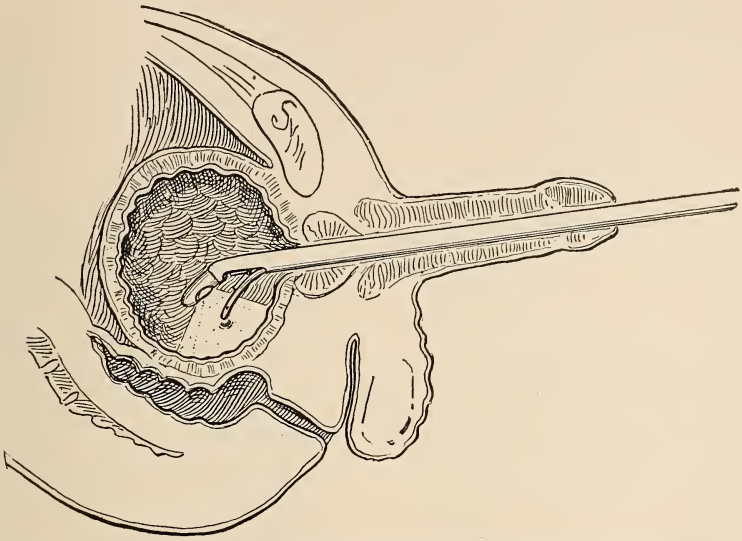


FIG. 696.—Catheterization by the indirect method, showing the tip of the catheter being deflected toward the ureteral orifice by elevating the director.

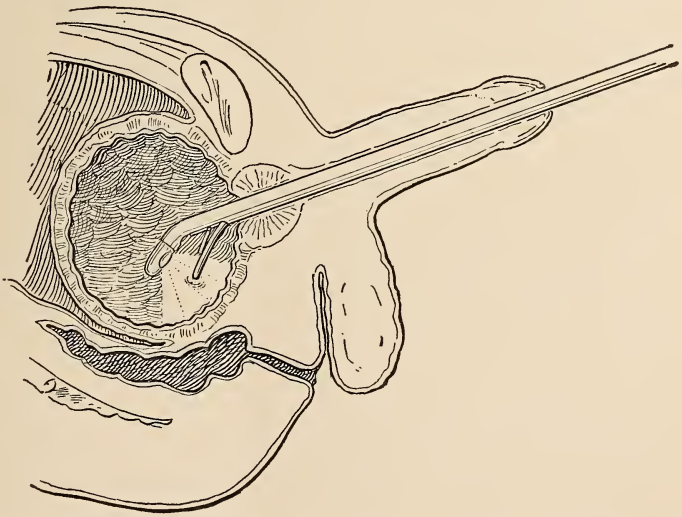


FIG. 697.—Catheterization by the indirect method, showing the catheter inserted in the ureter.

catheter forward a little or withdrawing it and changing its angle of deflection slightly, it is finally introduced into the ureter (Fig. 697).

The other ureter is then located and the catheter is introduced in the same way. The catheterizing telescope is then carefully removed, *first turning the deflector down* and extinguishing the lamp. It is sometimes a difficult matter to remove the sheath of the cystoscope and still leave the catheters in place when using this form of instrument. The following manipulations, however, described by Buerger (*Annals of Surgery*, February, 1909), simplify this portion of the operation:

"After having introduced the catheters a little higher than we would if the instrument were to remain in the bladder, and after removal of the telescope, the following movements should be carried out: first,

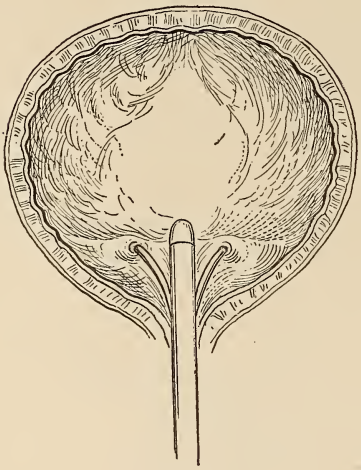


Fig. 698.

Fig. 699.

Fig. 698.—Removal of the sheath. First step, showing the telescope removed and the catheters lying loosely in the sheath. (After Buerger, *Annals of Surgery*, Feb., 1909.)

Fig. 699.—Removal of the sheath. Second step, showing the ocular end depressed and carried to the left until clear of the catheters. (After Buerger, *Annals of Surgery*, Feb., 1909.)

the ocular is depressed and carried a little to the left, thus separating the beak from the line of the catheters (Fig. 699); second, the whole instrument is rotated to the right on its longitudinal axis through an arc of 190 degrees, retaining the relative position just described, thus making the beak point upward (Fig. 700); third (still in the same plane, with the ocular a little to the left), the ocular is raised and brought back to the median line in order to bring the convexity of the beak against the trigone of the bladder (Fig. 701); and fourth, the sheath

is removed, its inferior aspect being made to hug the posterior wall of the urethra."

Removal of the Bierhoff instrument is comparatively simple, as it is arranged so that the telescope may be rotated within the sheath until the beak points upward without disturbing the catheters (see Fig. 689).

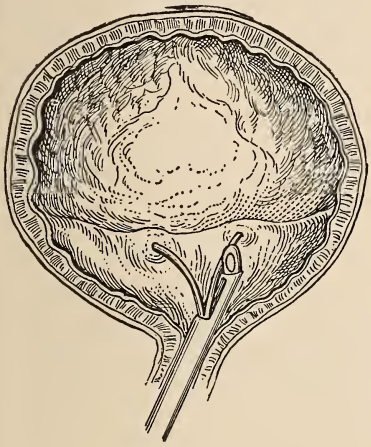


Fig. 700.

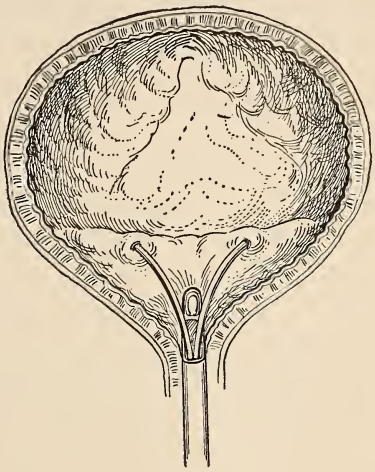


Fig. 701.

Fig. 700.—Removal of the sheath. Third step, showing the beak being turned upward. (After Buerger, *Annals of Surgery*, Feb., 1909.)

Fig. 701.—Removal of the sheath. Final step, the beak in position for removal of the sheath. (After Buerger, *Annals of Surgery*, Feb., 1909.)

URETERAL CATHETERIZATION IN THE FEMALE.

Ureteral catheterization in the female has the same field of usefulness as when applied to the male (see above). In addition, catheters are often inserted into the ureters as a guide to their position so as to avoid injuring them in difficult pelvic operations. Catheterization may be performed, as in the male, by means of one of the catheterizing cystoscopes, the method of performing which requires no further explanation than that given above, or by means of open tubes under air distention after the method of Kelly. This latter method requires separate description.

Instruments.—The ordinary Kelly speculum with illumination furnished by reflected light or some of the modifications of Kelly's tubes with the light at the distal end may be employed. The latter are preferable.

In addition there will be required a cone-shaped urethral dilator, alligator-jaw-shaped forceps, a residual urine evacuator, Kelly's ureteral searcher, silk flexible catheters, a metallic catheter, and hard-rubber flexible sounds (Fig. 702).

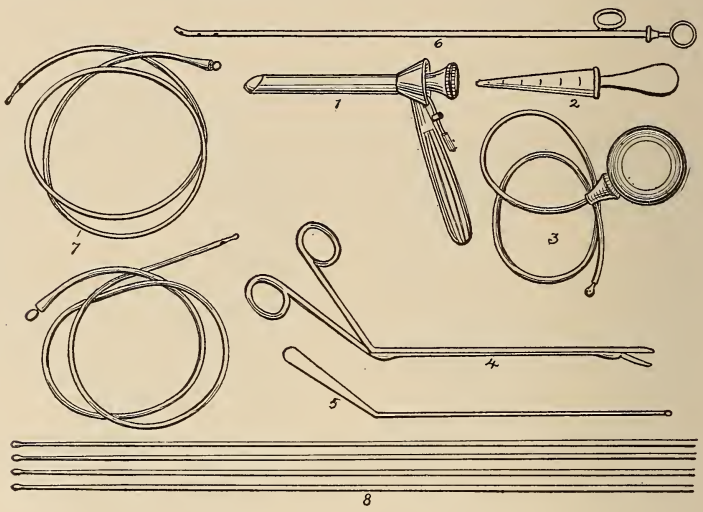


FIG. 702.—Instruments for catheterizing the ureters in the female.
1, Open-tube cystoscope; 2, Kelly urethral dilator; 3, residual urine evacuator; 4, alligator-jawed forceps; 5, ureteral searcher; 6, metal ureteral catheter; 7, flexible ureteral catheters with stylets; 8, ureteral bougies.

The cystoscope, alligator-jaw forceps, urethral dilator, and searcher have been previously described (page 616).

The flexible silk catheters are made in two lengths: 12 inches (30 cm.) long for ordinary ureteral catheterization and 20 inches (50 cm.) long for catheterization of the kidney pelvis. The tips are blunt or olivary and have an oval eye about 3/4 inch (2 cm.) from the distal end. They may be obtained in sizes running from 1/16 to 1/8 inch (1 3/4

FIG. 703.—Ashton's forceps for guiding the catheter into the ureter. (Ashton.)

to 3 mm.) in diameter. A wire stylet is introduced within the catheter to furnish it with the necessary stiffness for passage into the ureter, or forceps, such as Ashton's (Fig. 703), may be employed for this purpose. As an aid in recognizing a calculus the ends of the catheters may be wax-tipped (see Fig. 690).

Metal catheters are 12 inches (30 cm.) long and 1/12 inch (2 mm.) in diameter and are supplied with three eyes situated back of the point which is conical in shape and slightly curved. They are employed when a stricture low down in the ureter interferes with the passage of a flexible catheter.

Solid, flexible, hard-rubber bougies are employed in exploring the ureters or dilating strictures. They are 20 inches (50 cm.) long and 1/12 inch (2 mm.) in diameter. When warmed they become flexible and in this state may be passed the entire length of the ureter without danger. For the purpose of locating stone they may be wax-tipped (Fig. 704).

Fig. 704.—Wax-tapped bougie. (Ashton.)

Asepsis.—Great care should be taken to observe all aseptic details. The operator's hands should be thoroughly cleansed, and precautions should be taken not to allow the sterile catheters to touch the table or patient's body during their introduction. Metal instruments and hard-rubber bougies are sterilized by boiling for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. Silk catheters are boiled for not over two minutes in plain water and are then placed in cold sterile water to make them stiff. Care should be taken when boiling the catheters to place them in the sterilizer at full length and to wrap them separately in gauze so as to keep their surfaces from becoming glued together.

After use the catheters should be thoroughly cleaned inside and outside with warm water and tincture of green soap and then put away at full length in a glass receptacle.

Position of the Patient.—As for cystoscopy two positions are employed, namely, the dorsal elevated and the knee-chest. In the former the patient lies with the head and thorax resting on the table and the hips elevated 8 to 12 inches (20 to 30 cm.) upon a cushion so as to raise the pelvis sufficiently to allow the bladder to distend with air when the cystoscope is in place. If the bladder does not inflate with the patient in the dorsal position, the knee-chest posture is employed. The latter position is usually necessary in stout people.

Preparations of Patient.—It should be seen that the rectum and bladder are empty before beginning the examination. The external genitals are then washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury, and the bladder is irrigated with a

warm saturated solution of boric acid until the fluid returns clear. The solution is then all drained off before the cystoscope is inserted.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia, obtained by inserting into the meatus a small pledget of cotton saturated with a 2 per cent. solution of cocain and allowing it to remain for five minutes, is generally sufficient. In extremely nervous patients general anesthesia may be required.

Technic.—The urethra is first dilated and the cystoscope is introduced in the manner already described (page 618). The obturator is then removed, when, if the patient is in the proper position, air rushes in and distends the bladder. The light is then adjusted and a search is made for the ureteral orifices. In doing this it is well to first withdraw the instrument until the mucous membrane of the internal urethral orifice begins to close over the end of the instrument, and then to advance it 1/2 to 3/4 inch (1 to 2 cm.) turned either to the right or left about 30 degrees from the center line along the dark lateral ridge of the trigone. The distal end of the instrument is then brought close to the base of the bladder by raising the handle of the cystoscope if the patient is in the dorsal position, or depressing the handle if the knee-chest position is used. By moving the instrument carefully about, the mouth of the ureter will be located somewhere near the end of the cystoscope. It may appear as a small slit or as a distinct hole or as a dark point in the bladder mucous membrane. If it is not readily found, the speculum should be directed toward its normal location and a careful search made for it with an ureteral searcher in the folds of mucous membrane.

Having located the orifice, the end of the cystoscope is brought close to it and the catheter is introduced. Metal catheters or sounds are not difficult to introduce. They should be well lubricated and, while the cystoscope is maintained in position with the left hand, they are guided by means of the right hand into the ureteral orifice.

Flexible catheters may be introduced in two ways, either by the use of a stylet to give them stiffness or by the aid of a specially made forceps, such as Ashton's (see Fig. 703). By the former method the catheter, well lubricated, with the stylet in place, is gently inserted in the same manner as a metal catheter into the mouth of the ureter (Fig. 705). The stylet is then withdrawn and the catheter is pushed on until it has entered the desired distance. For ordinary purposes of catheterization this will be 3 or 4 inches (7.6 to 10 cm.). In introducing these flexible catheters care must be observed that the portion outside the cystoscope does not become contaminated by touching the

patient or the table, and for this purpose it is well to keep this part of the catheter wrapped in sterile gauze.

If it is desired to catheterize both ureters, the mouth of the other one is then located and the catheter introduced in the same manner. The cystoscope is then withdrawn and the catheters are labeled right and left to distinguish them. After wiping the ends of the catheters, they are placed in two small sterile bottles plugged with sterile cotton, and

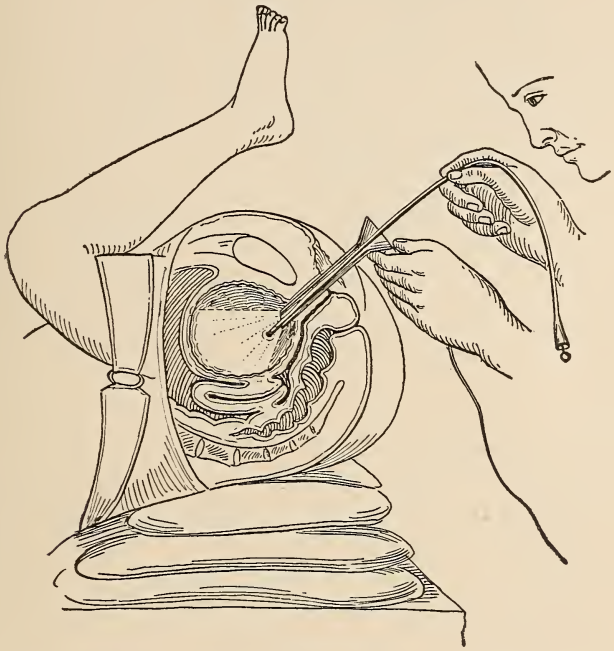


Fig. 705.—Catheterization of the ureter in the female by means of a flexible catheter armed with a stylet.

about 2 to 4 drams (7.5 to 15 c.c.) of urine are collected from each kidney (Fig. 706).

Variation in Technic.—The following method, devised by Kelly, for collecting urine from one kidney without using a catheter is sometimes employed when it is undesirable to introduce a catheter into the ureter for fear of carrying an infection from the bladder or from other causes. Briefly, it consists in placing the patient in the knee-chest posture, introducing into the bladder a speculum with the end cut on the slant, and exposing to view the ureteral orifice from which it is desired to obtain a specimen of urine. The orifice of the ureter is then wiped clean and the speculum is held close against the bladder

wall so that the urine escapes into the speculum whence it is collected by means of a small glass graduate (Fig. 707). In this way often in

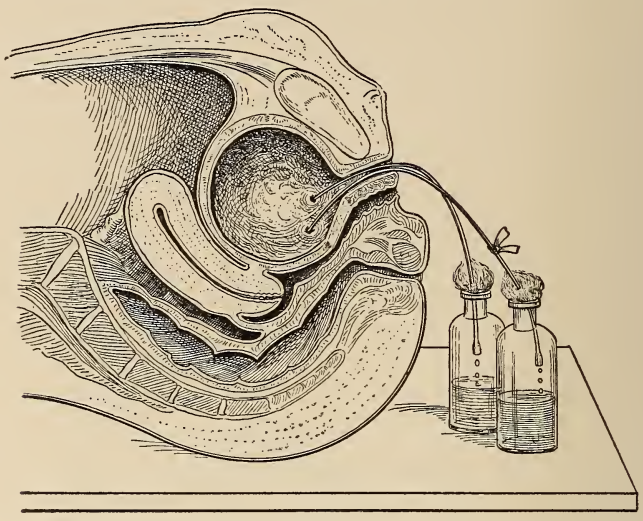


FIG. 706.—Method of collecting separate urine from each kindey. (Ashton.)

FIG. 707.—Kelly's method of collecting urine from a kidney without using a catheter. (After Kelly.)

a short time sufficient urine may be collected for purposes of examination.

SEGREGATION OF URINE.

Special instruments, known as segregators, which separate the bladder into two halves through the formation of an artificial dam, may be employed to collect the urine separately from the kidneys when a catheter cannot be passed into the ureter or ureteral catheterization is contraindicated. They are easier to employ than the ureteral catheter and with their use there is no danger of carrying infection into the ureters, but, on the other hand, they are not so accurate, as an incomplete watershed may be formed allowing the urine from the two sides to mingle, and the introduction of the instruments may incite vesical bleeding and give misleading, results. Again, if the bladder is diseased, the urine obtained is, of course, contaminated and it is not possible to determine whether the source of blood or pus is the bladder, ureter, or kidney. If the bladder is very irritable or bleeds easily, as is the case in the presence of acute cystitis, vesical calculus, tumors, and prostatic hypertrophy, a segregator should not be used. In healthy bladders, however, segregation properly performed is fairly reliable.

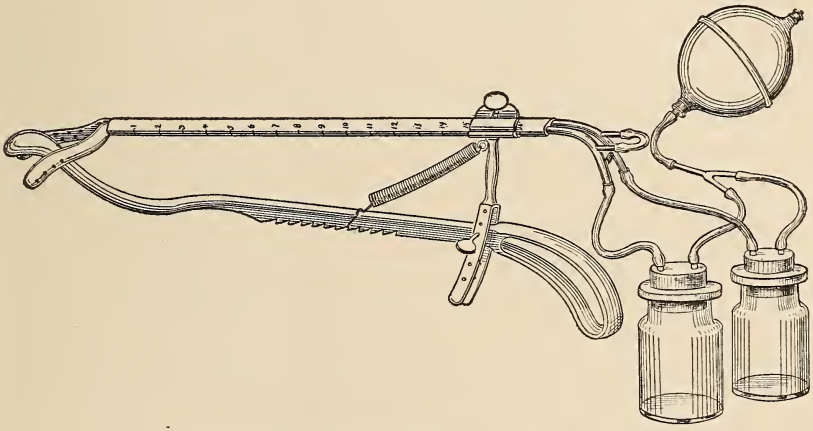


Fig. 708.—The Harris segregator. (Ashton.)

Instruments.—There are several types of urine separators among which may be mentioned the instruments of Harris and Luys.

The Harris segregator (Fig. 708) consists of two catheters having a common sheath except at the distal and proximal ends. The intravesical ends when in contact form a cylinder with a double curve and are supplied with numerous small eyes which lead to the interior of the catheter. The extravesical portions end in curved metal tubes to which are connected by means of pieces of rubber tubing two aspirating

bottles. A long lever, connected to the shaft of the instrument by means of a fulcrum and spring, which is inserted into the rectum or vagina for the purpose of raising up the bladder wall in the mid-line in the form of a dam, is also provided.

Luys' instrument (Fig. 709) consists of two catheter tubes separated by a metal partition, the vesical end of which has a Béniqué form of curve. On the concave side of the intravesical portion is a small chain covered with thin india-rubber membrane, so arranged that after the instrument is within the bladder by turning a screw at the proximal end of the instrument the rubber membrane is made to partition the

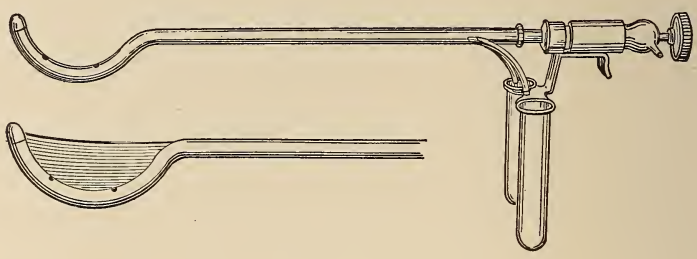


Fig. 709.—The Luys segregator.

bladder into two halves. Near the proximal end are two discharge tubes which empty into small bottles. In males this instrument causes less discomfort than does the Harris segregator.

Asepsis.—The instruments and the bottles for collecting the urine should be sterilized by boiling for five minutes, and the operator's hands are cleansed as for any operation.

Position of Patient.—In using the Harris instrument the patient lies flat on the back with the feet, hips, and head on a level and with the thighs flexed.

The same position is employed in inserting the Luys instrument, but, when the instrument is in the bladder, the patient is elevated to a semi-sitting position.

Preparations of Patient.—The rectum should be empty. The external genitals are cleansed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury. The urethra is irrigated with a 1 to 5000 solution of potassium permanganate. The bladder is emptied by means of a catheter and is then irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid or sterile water. About 5 ounces (150 c.c.) of solution is left in place when using the Harris instrument to permit manipulation of the instrument, less distention being necessary with the Luys instrument.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia may be required if the urethra or bladder are hyperesthetic.

Technic.—1. *Harris' Method.*—The instrument, closed so the

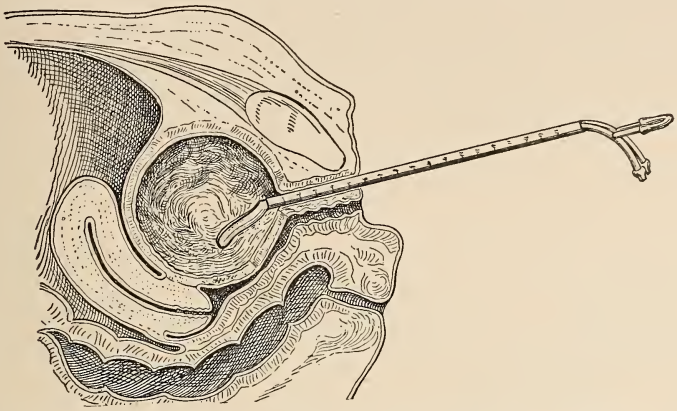


FIG. 710.—Segregation of urine by means of the Harris segregator. First step, instrument in position in the bladder. (Ashton.)

catheters form a continuous tube, is well lubricated and is introduced into the bladder until its beak lies just within the vesical neck (Fig. 710). The proximal ends are then rotated outward so that the vesical ends are made to lie on either side of the ureteral orifices and are fixed in

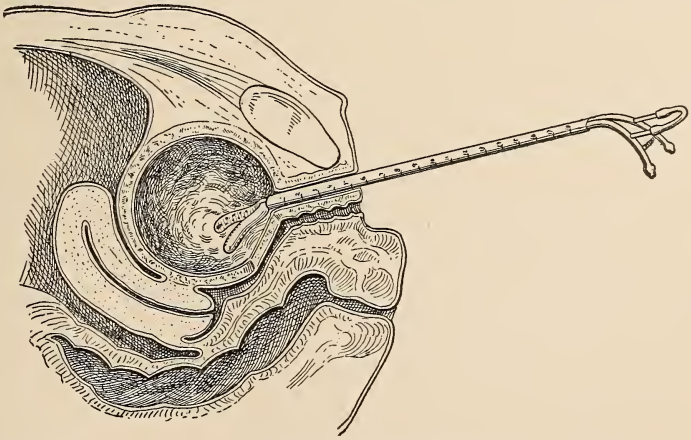


FIG. 711.—Segregation of urine by means of the Harris segregator. Second step, vesical ends of the instrument separated. (Ashton.)

this position by the small spring at the proximal end of the instrument (Fig. 711). The long lever, well lubricated, is then introduced into the rectum of the male or the vagina of the female and is secured by a

clamp to the sheath of the catheters. By means of a spiral spring the rectal or vaginal end is forced upward causing a longitudinal ridge of bladder wall to be formed in the mid-line between the two ureteral orifices with the end of each catheter lying at the bottom of the corresponding compartment of the bladder. The fluid left in the bladder is then allowed to escape from each catheter until it has all been drained off. The aspirating apparatus is then attached and the urine is *gently* sucked out of the viscus from time to time by means of the suction bulb and is collected in two sterile bottles (Fig. 712). The instrument must

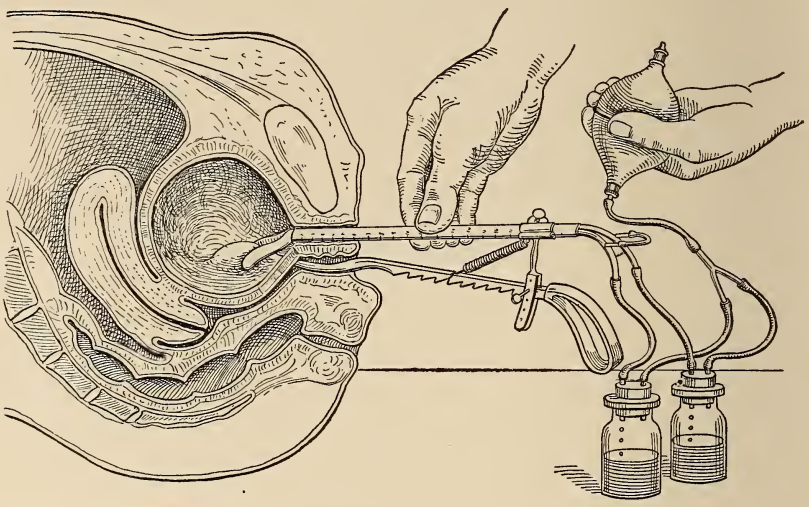


FIG. 712.—Segregation of urine by means of the Harris segregator. Third step, the instrument in place. (Ashton.)

be left in place about half an hour to collect sufficient urine for examination. Care must be taken to avoid too vigorous aspiration or hemorrhage will be incited.

At the completion of the operation the lever is detached, the catheters are folded back in place, and the instrument is carefully removed, following which the bladder is irrigated with a saturated solution of boric acid.

2. *Luys' Method.*—The rubber dam is first carefully examined to see if it is intact. The instrument, well lubricated, is then introduced in the same manner one would insert a sound, depressing the handle well between the thighs as soon as the tip enters the prostatic urethra so as to carry the curved portion into the bladder. As soon as the instrument is well within the bladder, the patient is raised to a semi-

sitting posture and the diaphragm is raised, carefully keeping the instrument exactly in the median line. The handle of the instrument is then elevated until resistance shows that the intravesical portion is in contact with the base of the bladder. This should be confirmed by vaginal or rectal palpation. After all solution has been drained from the bladder, the urine as it trickles into the bladder is carried off by a catheter on each side and is collected in the small tubes at the proximal ends of the instrument (Fig. 713).

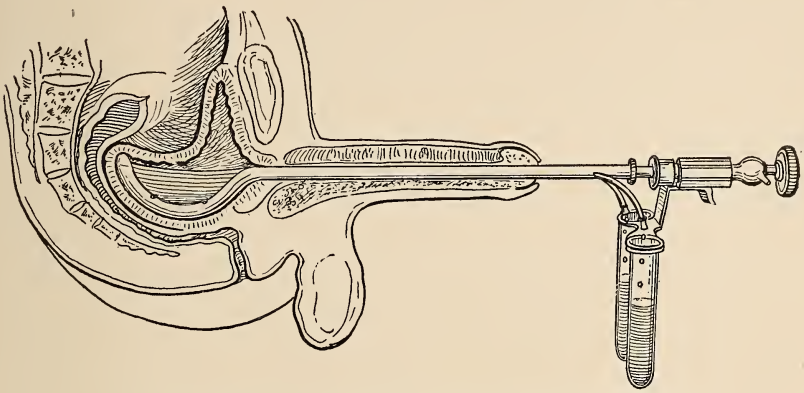


FIG. 713—Showing the method of using the Luys segregator.

At the completion of the operation the diaphragm is lowered and the instrument is withdrawn. This is followed by a vesical irrigation of boric acid.

DETERMINATION OF THE FUNCTIONAL CAPACITY OF THE KIDNEYS.

By the functional capacity is understood the ability of a given organ to perform its excretory functions. In surgical work it is always important to determine whether the kidneys are doing normal excretory work, but, unless a severe operation is to be undertaken, a careful urinalysis. including the total daily amount of urine, the daily excretion of urea, etc., is sufficient. When the removal of one kidney is contemplated, however, in addition to determining whether the two kidneys are fuctionating properly, the functional capacity of *each* kidney should be determined as far as possible. A variety of procedures with this in view have been devised. These include (1) estimation of the amount of urea excreted, (2) inducing artificial glycosuria by phloridzin, (3) the methylene-blue and indigo-carmin tests, (4) cryoscopy of the blood and urine, and (5) the experimental polyuria test.

While these tests are very valuable, none of them are infallible, for, though they demonstrate which kidney is functionating best, they do not absolutely prove that a particular kidney is healthy and capable of doing sufficient excretory work after removal of its mate.

The Urea Test.—The average daily amount of urea excreted in health amounts to from 250 to 450 grains (16 to 29 gm.). In the presence of one diseased kidney, if it is found on repeated examinations that the average total daily amount is not reduced to below 250 grains (16 gm.), it is evident that the sound kidney is compensating for the other's inefficiency. Collection of the separate urine from each kidney by ureteral catheterization and estimation of the amount of urea in each specimen will, however, show exactly the proportion of work each kidney performs.

The Phloridzin Test.—This test depends upon the property of the healthy kidneys to form sugar from phloridzin. The bladder is first emptied and then 16 ♏. (1 c.c.) of a 1 to 200 solution of phloridzin are injected into the buttock. If the kidneys are healthy, glycosuria should appear within fifteen minutes to half an hour after the administration of the phloridzin and should persist for about two to four hours. Delay in its appearance or the excretion of only small amounts of sugar points to renal insufficiency, while an entire absence of sugar indicates that the kidneys are seriously affected. If the functional activity of each kidney is to be determined, a catheter is placed in each ureter and the relative proportion of sugar in each specimen of urine thus obtained is estimated.

Methylene-blue and Indigo-carmin Tests.—Another method of testing the functional activity of the kidneys is to inject drugs, such as methylene blue or indigo-carmin, which color the urine after entering the circulation. For this purpose 16 ♏. (1 c.c.) of a 5 per cent. solution of methylene blue is given hypodermically or 65 ♏. (4 c.c.) of a 4 per cent. solution of indigo-carmin is injected intramuscularly. If the kidneys are normal, upon cystoscopic examination within half an hour after administration of the methylene blue and within ten to twelve minutes after the administration of the indigo-carmin, stained urine will be seen escaping from the ureteral orifices.

It is claimed for these tests that if the coloring of the urine is delayed or its intensity lessened it tends to show that there is some impairment of the renal function.

Cryoscopy.—Cryoscopy is the determination of the freezing-point of a liquid compared to that of distilled water. The underlying principle of this test is that fluids containing a small amount of solid

material give a high freezing-point while liquids with greater concentration freeze at a lower temperature. Applied to the blood and urine, cryoscopy is valuable in determining the renal activity of the kidneys and in some cases may be of prognostic value when renal impairment exists. For example, if the kidneys are doing an insufficient amount of excretory work, there will be an accumulation of solid material in the blood which will, therefore, freeze at a lower temperature than normal, and at the same time the urine in such a case, through impairment of the power of the kidneys to eliminate properly, will give a higher freezing-point than normal.

The freezing-point of normal blood is 0.56° C. below that of distilled water. In weakened anemic individuals, however, it may rise to —0.55° C. or even as high as —0.53° C. or —0.52° C. If cryoscopy of the blood gives a freezing-point below —0.56° C., it is regarded as indicating some impairment of the renal function with retention of waste products in the blood. According to Kummell, who has had a very large experience with this method and places great reliance in it, if the freezing-point of blood falls to —0.60° C. it indicates such a degree of renal impairment that nephrectomy is contraindicated.

Cryoscopy of the urine is of less value than when the test is applied to the blood. Healthy urine freezes at —0.9° C. to —2° C., and if the freezing-point is higher than —0.9° C. it is considered to be indicative of insufficient renal activity. Cryoscopy of urine collected separately from each kidney by ureteral catheterization will give more information than when the test is applied to the bulk of urine.

To carry out this test 3 drams (10 c.c.) of blood and urine are required. For comparative examination the two should be collected at the same time, the former by venous puncture (page 222) and the latter by ureteral catheterization.

For the technic of cryoscopy, which requires a considerable amount of skill to properly carry out, the reader is referred to some of the manuals on clinical laboratory methods.

Experimental Polyuria Test.—Still another method of estimating the functional activity of the kidneys is that known as the experimental polyuria test, devised by Albarran, which consists essentially in obtaining the urine from each kidney when the patient is dry and comparing the two specimens and then having the patient drink a large quantity of water and noting the effect upon the activity of the two kidneys.

The test is based upon the following laws: First, a diseased kidney has a more uniform function than a healthy one, and the more extensively its parenchyma is destroyed the less will its function vary from

time to time; second, when one kidney alone is diseased or is more diseased than the other, if the urinary function is disturbed, its function is less modified than the other. In other words, if an increased excretory demand is placed upon the kidneys through the ingestion of large quantities of water and the urine is collected separately, the less diseased organ should show a greater increase in activity, manifested by the excretion of a larger total amount of fluid and solids, though the *percentage* of solids will be diminished, while the diseased kidney will show a relatively small or no increase in activity. The test thus becomes of value in determining which kidney is functionating best and the power of each to accommodate itself to increased demands for excretory work.

The technic is as follows: The patient should not have eaten anything for four hours or taken any liquids for three hours. A single catheter is placed in one ureter and the urine from the other side is collected by means of a small catheter passed into the bladder. The urine which flows for the first ten or fifteen minutes is discarded in order to permit the reflex polyuria which follows the introduction of the ureteral catheter to subside, and the urine that then flows is collected for half an hour. This is saved for comparison with specimens taken after the administration of the fluid. At the end of half an hour the patient is given two to three glasses of Evian water and the urine is collected separately and examined at half hour intervals for one and a half hours. Not only is the total quantity of urine noted, but the specimens are tested as to the freezing-point, quantity of urea and sodium chlorid, and, if phloridzin has been given, the amount of sugar is estimated.

SKIAGRAPHY.

The X-rays are of the greatest aid in the diagnosis of ureteral and renal calculi. A good picture will give positive information as to the position of a calculus, that is, whether it is located in the ureter or kidney and will demonstrate their number and size, as well as the position of the kidneys. In order to interpret the results of the X-ray correctly the plate should show the following anatomic landmarks. The twelfth rib, the transverse processes of the vertebræ, the crests of the ilia, and the psoas muscle. If these points are shown, the position of a calculus may be determined with accuracy. The shadows cast by tumors, fecal concretions, calcified retroperitoneal glands, buried sutures which have become calcified, phleboliths, the thickened tip

of an appendix, etc., are sometimes wrongly interpreted as calculi. Such errors may be avoided if a metallic sound or a catheter in which a lead wire stylet has been placed is inserted into the ureter and renal pelvis, and an X-ray is then taken. The shadow of a calculus will be shown to be in close relation to that produced by the wire in the ureter. Thus, while a positive picture can usually be taken as proof of the presence of a calculus, this cannot always be said of the negative evidence furnished by an X-ray. It must be remembered that great thickness of the abdominal wall may interfere with the success of a picture and that the chemical composition of the stone is also an important element, for while oxalate and phosphate stones give a deep shadow, those composed of uric acid furnish but faint shadows and may escape recognition. In all cases to obtain a successful picture it is absolutely essential that the stomach be empty and the bowels be thoroughly cleared by a purge.

EXPLORATORY INCISION.

In cases of contemplated nephrectomy where other means of diagnosis fail to give satisfactory results, an exploratory operation will determine the exact condition of the second kidney. The kidney requiring removal is first exposed and thoroughly explored. If its removal seems indicated, it is replaced for the time being and the kidney supposed to be healthy is then cut down upon by a lumbar incision, the capsule is incised, and the organ is palpated and if necessary inspected. If it is found to be healthy, the wound is closed and the other kidney may then be removed. Should, however, such exploration reveal serious disease of the second kidney, nephrectomy is contraindicated.

Therapeutic Measures.

MEDICATION OF THE RENAL PELVIS AND URETERS.

Lavage of the kidney pelvis and ureter has been employed with considerable success by Kelly and others in treating chronic infection of the kidney pelvis and ureter. The procedure is not difficult for one skilled in the passage of the ureteral catheter, and properly performed seems to be without danger. It is not a suitable method of treatment, however, in acute infections, and in chronic cases, even, other measures should be first given a trial.

Instruments.—In addition to the apparatus necessary for ureteral catheterization (see pages 652, 661) there will be required a glass

syringe with a capacity of 1 or 2 ounces (30 to 60 c.c.) supplied with a blunt nozzle sufficiently small to fit into the end of the catheter.

Asepsis.—The same precautions against infection should be observed as detailed under ureteral catheterization (pages 654, 663).

Solutions Used.—A saturated solution of boric acid, silver nitrate in the strength of 1 to 8000 increased in strength up to 1 to 2000, protargol 1 to 500 to 2 per cent., bichlorid of mercury 1 to 150,000 to 1 to 16,000 may be employed. Too strong solutions will result in colic.

For the purpose of aiding the passage of an impacted calculus injections of sterile olive oil have been employed.

Temperature.—The solution should be at a temperature of 100° F.

Quantity.—One to 2 drams (about 5 to 10 c.c.) of solution are generally injected at a time. If large amounts are employed, over-distention of the renal pelvis will result with consequent colic.

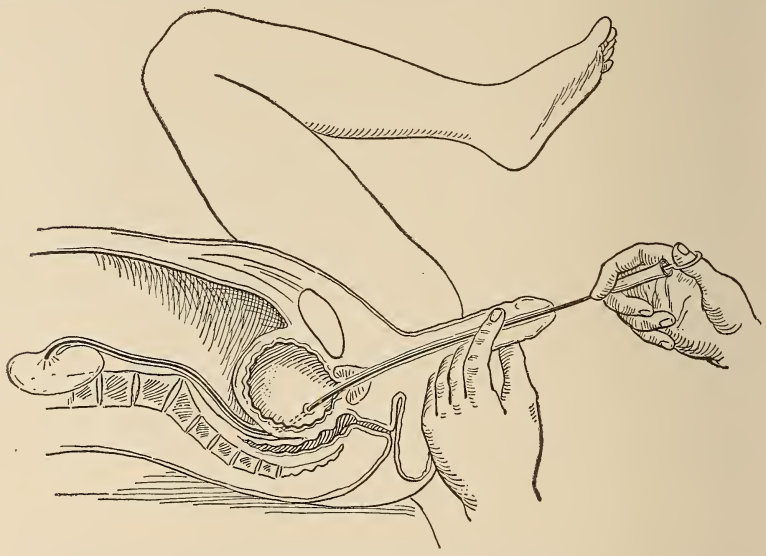


Fig. 714.—Medication of the renal pelvis.

Frequency.—The treatments may be applied once or twice a week.

Position of Patient.—Same as for ureteral catheterization (pages 654, 663).

Anesthesia.—(See pages 654, 664.)

Preparations of Patient.—The same as for ureteral catheterization (pages 655, 663).

Technic.—The catheter is inserted into the renal pelvis as previously described (pages 655, 664). Any pus collection is then allowed to drain off, and the tip of the syringe, charged with the solution, is introduced

into the end of the catheter and 1 or 2 drams (5 to 10 c.c.) of solution are injected. Care must be taken to see that the syringe contains no air and the injection must be given slowly to avoid a sudden distention of the kidney pelvis. The syringe is then disconnected, the patient is raised to a semi-upright position, and the solution is all allowed to escape; if a small catheter is employed, the solution may, however, escape beside it into the bladder. This washing-out process may be repeated until the solution returns clear. The syringe is again connected with the catheter which is slowly withdrawn, the solution being injected the while so as to medicate the entire ureter. At the completion of the operation the bladder is irrigated.

To aid the passage of a ureteral calculus by the injection of olive oil, the following technic is employed: a ureteral catheter is passed beyond the stone if possible, and, if not, up to it, and a few drops of sterile olive oil are injected. This acts as a lubricant and the stone is often readily passed as a result.

THE DILATATION OF URETERAL STRICTURES.

The gradual dilatation of ureteral strictures may be performed by suitable bougies, introduced with the aid of the cystoscope. While it is doubtful if a permanent cure can be obtained in many cases by this

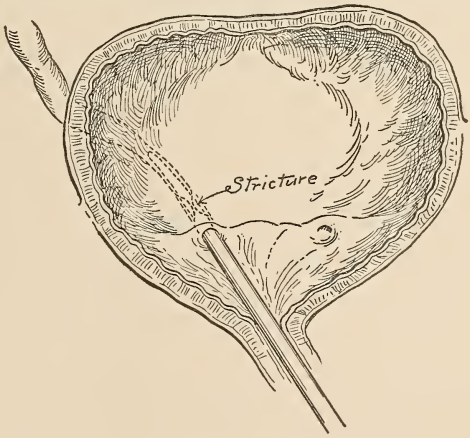


Fig. 715.—Showing the method of dilating a ureteral stricture. (After Kelly and Noble.)

method, as such strictures, like those of the urethra, rectum, etc., tend to recontract in the majority of cases, the patient is greatly benefited for the time being through relief of the distention of the ureter and kidney pelvis caused by the obstruction. The majority of strictures are located near the ureteral orifices, and these are most readily dilated,

though the method may be applied with success to strictures in any part of the canal.

Instruments.—Dilatation may be affected by means of flexible whalebone bougies, flexible catheters or, if the stricture is near the vesical end, by metal catheters. These instruments as well as the cystoscopes have been already described (pages 652, 661).

Asepsis.—(See pages 654, 663.)

Frequency of Dilatation.—Treatments are employed every two or three days.

Position of Patient.—Same as for ureteral catheterization (pages 654, 663).

Preparations.—(See pages 655, 663.)

Anesthesia.—(See pages 654, 664.)

Technic.—The ureteral orifice is located as already described and the dilator is introduced into the ureter in the same manner as the ureteral catheter (pages 655, 664). Choosing an instrument that the stricture will readily admit, it is passed completely through the stricture and is left in place for a few moments and then a larger size is inserted. At the next treatment the stricture is dilated one or two sizes more until finally it is stretched sufficiently to admit a No. 5 or 6 catheter with ease. Following each treatment lavage of the kidney pelvis and ureter may be practised as described above.

CHAPTER XX.

THE FEMALE GENERATIVE ORGANS.

Anatomic Considerations.

The Vagina.—The vagina is a musculo-membranous canal extending from the uterus to the vulva, lying between the bladder and urethra in front and the rectum behind. With the woman in an erect posture it is directed downward and forward at an angle of 60 degrees with the horizon. The anterior wall, which is shorter than the posterior wall, due to the position of the cervix, measures 2 to 2 1/2 inches (5 to 6 cm.) in length, while the posterior wall measures 3 to 3 1/2 inches (7.6 to 9 cm.). Normally the walls are in contact, but when distended the vagina becomes conical in shape and larger above than below. That portion surrounding the cervix uteri is spoken of as the roof or fornix. It is divided for description into four parts: the anterior fornix, in which is normally felt the body of the uterus; the posterior fornix, the deepest portion, which is in close relation with the cul-de-sac of Douglas; and the two lateral fornices.

Relations.—Anteriorly, in its lower portion the vagina is in relation with the urethra and in its upper half with the neck and fundus of the bladder. Posteriorly, it is in relation with the perineal body in its lower quarter, in its upper quarter with the cul-de-sac of Douglas, and between the two with the rectum.

Structure.—It consists, of a mucous, muscular, and connective-tissue coat. The mucous membrane, which is of the squamous variety, exhibits on the anterior and posterior walls numerous ridges, or rugæ, which extend out transversely from a central column. They are more distinct on the anterior wall.

The muscular coat is arranged in two layers, an inner longitudinal and an outer circular.

The connective-tissue coat is a thin fibrous structure containing a few smooth muscle fibers. In its meshes this layer gives support to a plexus of veins.

The Uterus and Appendages.—The uterus, or womb, is a hollow pear-shaped organ lying in the pelvis between the bladder and the rectum. It measures about 3 inches (7.6 cm.) in length, 2 inches (5 cm.) in breadth, and 1 inch (2.5 cm.) in thickness.

Externally it is flattened from before backward, and at the point where the peritoneum is reflected from the uterus to the bladder there appears a constriction, the isthmus, which corresponds with the position of the internal os and divides the uterus into two portions. The portion lying below the isthmus is the cervix, that part between the isthmus and a line joining the entrance of the tubes is known as the body, while the portion above the plane of the entrance of the tubes is known as the fundus. The cervix in turn is also divided into three portions: an infravaginal portion, below the attachment of the anterior vaginal wall; a supravaginal portion, above the attachment of the posterior vaginal wall; and an intermediate portion, lying between the two.

The interior of the uterus measures about 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) in length and is divided into two portions by the internal os. That portion of the canal above this point is triangular in shape with the

FIG. 716.—The normal position of the uterus. (Ashton.)

base upward and with the walls normally in contact. In the cervical portion the canal is fusiform in shape. The uterus opens into the vagina through the external os, a transverse aperture having an anterior and a posterior lip, while above it connects with the peritoneal cavity through the Fallopian tubes.

Position of Uterus.—Normally the uterus lies in a slightly anteflexed position with the fundus pointing toward the umbilicus (Fig. 716). Its position, however, is modified from time to time by the neighboring organs. Thus a distended bladder will push it toward the sacrum, while a full rectum pushes it forward.

Structure.—The uterus is made up of a mucous, muscular, and a

peritoneal coat. The mucous membrane of the body of the uterus is smooth and pale in color, with the mouths of numerous tubular glands opening upon its surface. The lining epithelium is of the ciliated variety having a motion from within outward.

In the cervix it is firmer in structure and is thrown into numerous folds, the arbor vitæ. These are arranged in the form of a median ridge on the anterior and posterior walls, from which branch secondary ridges in an upward and outward direction. Between these ridges are located the openings of tubular and racemose glands. In the upper portion of the cervix the mucous membrane is the same as that found in the body of the uterus and below it is similar to that in the vagina.

Extending out from either superior angle of the uterus are the two Fallopian tubes. They measure 3 to 5 inches (7.6 to 12.7 cm.) in length and lie in the free borders of the broad ligaments between the ovaries behind and the round ligaments in front. They are lined with ciliated epithelium having a direction toward the uterus. Their external apertures, the fimbriated extremities, open into the peritoneal cavity near the ovary. Internally each tube opens into the uterine cavity at its superior angles.

The ovaries, two in number, lie on either side of the uterus, about on a level with the pelvic brim, near the abdominal extremities of the tubes. Each ovary measures 1 1/2 inches (3.8 cm.) in length, 3/4 inch (1.9 cm.) in breadth, and 1/3 to 1/2 inch (0.8 to 1.2 cm.) in thickness.

Diagnostic Methods.

In making a gynecological examination the investigation should comprise an inquiry into the patient's general condition as well as an examination of the pelvic organs. A clear and concise history of the subjective symptoms should be the first step in every case. It is preferable to allow the patient to first detail her own symptoms and to supplement this by inquiry as to essential points. In doing this it is well to follow a routine system in order to avoid omitting some important point that may have direct bearing upon the case, and also that the examiner may have a complete record for future reference.

In addition to the usual questions commonly asked in obtaining a history, special information should be sought in regard to the following points: First the menstrual history should be inquired into, ascertaining the age at which menstruation began, the precautions taken during menstruation, the interval between the periods, the regularity of the periods, the duration of the flow, and its character, whether painful,

whether accompanied by the passage of clots, and whether scanty or profuse. The latter is especially important, as excessive menstrual bleeding points to the presence of some pathological condition.

With a history of painful menstruation the time the pain begins and ceases in relation to menstruation should be ascertained. It should also be found out whether there has been any bleeding between the periods. If the menopause has occurred, its date and the presence or absence of any bleeding since are to be noted. If the patient is married, certain data relating to child-bearing should be sought, comprising the number of children, the dates of their births, a history of the labors, whether easy, difficult, or instrumental, and whether they were followed by a long and protracted convalescence.

With a history of abortions or miscarriages the period of pregnancy at which they occurred and their probable cause should be ascertained. At times it is also important to know something of the marital relations, that is, the frequency of coitus, whether the act is painful and whether measures to prevent conception have been employed, and, if so, the methods used.

The patient is next questioned as to the presence or absence of a vaginal discharge. If present, its character should be inquired into, whether foul, blood-tinged, or having the characteristics of an ordinary leukorrhea. The quantity of discharge is also to be noted, and whether it is always present or only occurs midway between the monthly periods.

Pain is another frequent and important complaint upon which full information should be sought. The character and situation of the pain should always be determined. The pain complained of may be in the form of a headache, a bearing-down feeling, backache, or its situation may be referred to some part of the pelvis, the coccyx, or the inguinal region. Inguinal pain generally points to some disease of the uterine appendages or ligaments; on the other hand, backache is found as an accompaniment of a number of conditions, such as chronic constipation, uterine displacements, pelvic and uterine tumors, etc., while pain in the coccyx is often a symptom of neurasthenia. It should also be ascertained if the pain is modified by menstruation, and if so, whether it is worse before the flow begins, during the flow, or afterward, also whether it is affected by exercise, any sudden jolt or jar, or by coitus.

Finally, since many gynecological patients have in addition to their pelvic troubles other disorders, the general symptoms and the functions of other organs should be similarly inquired into. Thus the patient should be questioned as to her appetite, loss of weight, nausea and

vomiting, and if the latter is present, its character and relation to the taking of food, the condition of the bowels, and whether she sleeps well or suffers from nervousness, hysteria, palpitation of the heart, hot flashes, etc., etc.

Having obtained the above data, a thorough physical examination is then made. It should comprise a careful observation of the patient's general condition, color, and nutrition, and an examination of the heart, lungs, nervous system, urine, and blood. After this is completed the patient is prepared for a general examination of the abdomen and pelvic organs.

The methods available for such examination include abdominal inspection, palpation, percussion, auscultation, and mensuration, internal examination by inspection and palpation, the use of specula and the uterine sound, digital exploration of the uterus, test excision, test curettage, and exploratory incision.

Preparation of Patient.—Certain preparation of the patient is essential for a thorough examination, otherwise the results will be unsatisfactory. If an anesthetic is to be given, the preparations for such, previously detailed (page 18), should be carried out. In any case, the bowels should be thoroughly evacuated by means of a mild purgative taken the day before, followed by an enema on the morning of the examination. The bladder is emptied spontaneously just before the patient presents herself for examination.

A suitable examining-table should be provided, and the simpler it is the better. It should be about 2 1/2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) high, strong in construction, provided with adjustable foot-rests, and capable of being lengthened so that the patient may be placed upon it in the horizontal position. A small step, to aid the patient in mounting it, is also necessary. A second small table should be placed near at hand, upon which are placed solutions, instruments, etc., that may be required during the examination.

When it is necessary to make a vaginal examination in the patient's home, an ordinary kitchen table or the bed may be utilized. In the latter case the patient is placed lengthwise across the bed, with an ironing-board covered by several thicknesses of a sheet placed on the mattress under the patient's hips, and with the patient's feet supported on two chairs (Fig. 717).

With the patient in the desired position upon the table it should be seen that the corsets and any constricting bands are removed from about the waist and that the patient is so covered by sheets that only the region to be examined is exposed. For an abdominal examination

two sheets are employed, one draped over the pelvic region and lower part of the abdomen and the other over the upper abdomen. For a vaginal examination the sheet is thrown over the lower extremities and is then separated so as to expose the vulva. If the examiner is provided with a nurse, these details may be left to her. While a nurse is not absolutely necessary, it is always preferable to have some woman present at the examination, not only for the greater comfort of the patient, but for the protection of the physician against malicious charges at the hands of unscrupulous females.

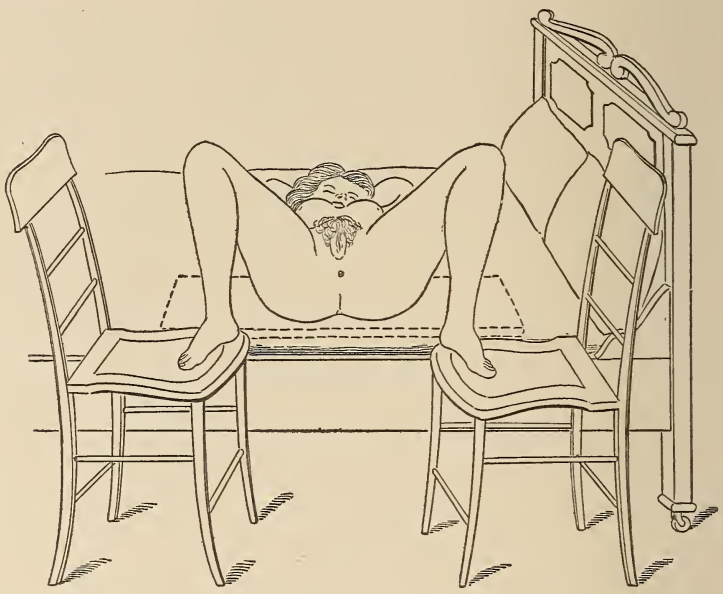


Fig. 717.—Position of the patient for an examination upon a bed. (Ashton.)

Gynecological Postures.—In examining the female pelvic organs a number of postures are available. These include the dorsal, the Sims, the knee-chest, the erect, and the squatting positions.

The dorsal position, which is the best for digital or bimanual examinations, is obtained by placing the patient, facing the light, flat on the back, with the hips near the edge of the table and with the feet supported upon the foot-rests (Fig. 718).

The Sims position is obtained by placing the patient upon her left side, with the left side of the face, the left shoulder, and left breast resting upon a flat pillow. The left arm lies behind the back, the thighs are well flexed upon the body, and the right knee is drawn up nearer the body than the left (see Fig. 501). In this position an excel-

lent view may be obtained of the vaginal fornices, the anterior vaginal wall, and the cervix, but it is not satisfactory for a digital examination, as the pelvic organs are more difficult to reach than with the patient in the dorsal posture.

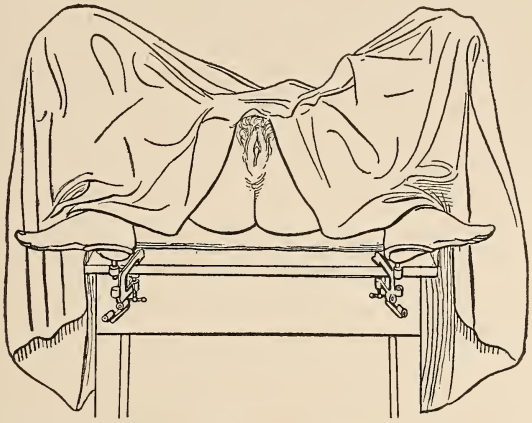


FIG. 718.—The patient in the dorsal position. (Ashton

FIG. 719.—Examination with the patient standing erect. (Ashton.)

The knee-chest position is obtained by having the patient kneel upon a table, with the thighs at right angles to the legs, the chest resting upon a pillow placed upon the same level as the knees (see Fig. 503).

In this posture the intestines gravitate toward the diaphragm, and the vagina becomes distended so that the numerous folds of mucous membrane are spread out smoothly.

The Erect Posture.—The patient, with her clothes elevated and a sheet fastened about her hips, stands with one foot on the floor and the other resting upon a stool 6 to 8 inches (15 to 20 cm.) high. The examiner kneels in front of the patient and, passing his hand beneath the sheet, makes a digital examination of the vaginal outlet and the uterus (Fig. 719). In this position a prolapse of the uterus or a relaxation of the vaginal outlet is more readily recognized than in the dorsal posture.

The squatting posture is sometimes useful in ascertaining the degree of a uterine prolapse and the relaxation of the vaginal walls. The patient takes the same position as when at stool and, by a slight straining effort, any tendency to prolapse is readily made visible to the examiner.

Asepsis.—In all gynecological examinations every precaution must be taken to avoid infecting a patient as well as to prevent infection of the examiner by the patient. All instruments that are used are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution, and no instrument should be used on more than one patient without resterilization. The examiner's hands are sterilized by a thorough scrubbing with tincture of green soap and water, followed by immersion in an antiseptic solution. The examiner should also see that his finger-nails are cut short to avoid hurting the patient.

If the patient is suspected of having syphilis or gonorrhea, or in the presence of a septic discharge, the examiner should protect himself by wearing rubber gloves previously sterilized by boiling. In the majority of cases it is sufficient to wipe off the vulva with a swab soaked in a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution, but where a profuse or foul discharge is present a vaginal douche should be given. When it is desired to obtain a specimen of a discharge for examination, antiseptic solutions or douches should be omitted until this has been done.

I. Examination of the Abdomen.

INSPECTION.

From the appearance of the skin, the shape of the abdomen, and the effect of respiration upon a tumor valuable information may be obtained.

Position of Patient.—The patient should lie with the body symmetrically placed upon a firm flat table in the horizontal position.

Technic.—With the patient's abdomen entirely exposed and the light falling obliquely upon the abdomen, the examiner inspects it first from the side and then from the foot of the table (see Fig. 461). The color of the skin of the abdomen, the presence or absence of striæ, eruptions, scars, edema, and dilated veins, the condition of the abdominal walls, whether rigid or lax, and the shape and symmetry of the abdomen should all be noted.

In enlargement of the abdomen due to obesity, the lower portion of the abdominal wall usually hangs down over the patient's thighs. In ascites the abdomen is more or less flattened, and the sides bulge outward. In the presence of pregnancy or an ovarian cyst the enlargement is smooth and regular, in the former case the abdomen being symmetrically enlarged, while an ovarian cyst, especially if small, may distend one side only. Fibroid tumors may present as irregular and nodular growths. If a tumor is discovered, the presence or absence of mobility with respiration and whether the abdominal walls move over the growth should be noted. Evidence of a weakened condition of the recti muscles or the presence of a hernia should also be sought by having the patient strain and cough.

PALPATION.

Palpation of the abdomen is the most satisfactory of the methods of abdominal examination and should form a part of every routine gynecological examination. By it the presence of tumors, rigidity, fluctuation, or local tenderness that might escape notice by trusting simply to a vaginal examination may be recognized, and, in the presence of an enlargement, its situation, origin, shape, mobility, and consistency may be determined.

Position of Patient.—The patient lies in the dorsal position, with the shoulders slightly elevated and the thighs somewhat flexed to secure thorough relaxation.

Technic.—The examiner first thoroughly warms his hands. Then, taking his place upon one side of the patient, he systematically palpates all portions of the abdomen. In doing this the palpating hand—usually the right—is placed upon the abdomen, palm downward, and firm but gentle pressure is made—sharp pressure with the finger tips should be avoided as it incites the muscles to contract. Local or general rigidity of the abdominal wall, sensitive areas, and the presence of a tumor are thus ascertained.

To differentiate obesity from intraabdominal growths both hands are employed and make deep pressure from the sides toward the midline, at the same time lifting upward on the abdominal walls (Fig. 720).

FIG. 720.—Showing the method of estimating the thickness of the abdominal walls.

The situation, origin, size, or mobility of a tumor is determined by making deep pressure with both hands in all directions about the mass (Fig. 721). An enlarged uterus is mapped out in the same manner. In examining the lateral regions of the abdomen bimanual

FIG. 721.—Bimanual palpation of an abdominal tumor. (Ashton.)

palpation is often of service, one hand being placed under the flank and making forward pressure while the other hand palpates the antero-lateral surface of the abdomen.

Fluid collections are recognized by a thrill or wave produced by placing one hand with the palm flat on one side of the abdomen and tapping the abdomen from the opposite side with the fingers of the other hand. To avoid confusing a wave produced by tapping a fat abdomen with that of fluid the examiner should have an assistant place the ulnar edge of his hand firmly on the summit of the abdomen while the tapping is performed (Fig. 722). In the case of fat the wave is then absent.

Fig. 722.—Method of differentiating between a wave produced when tapping a fat abdomen and one containing fluid. (Ashton.)

PERCUSSION.

Abdominal percussion is valuable when employed as an adjunct to inspection and palpation in differentiating between tympany, acites, cystic and solid tumors, and in determining the size and shape of a tumor, and its origin. To avoid errors, the large intestine should be emptied by an enema before the examination.

Position of Patient.—Percussion is performed, first, with the patient lying on the back and, then, turned upon the side.

Technic.—The examiner places the palmar surface of the middle finger of the left hand firmly upon the area to be percussed and, using the tip of the middle finger of the right hand, bent at a right angle, as a plexor, strikes quick, sharp blows (see Fig. 467). The normal resonance of the abdomen is tympanitic except in the regions of the liver and spleen where it is dull. Fecal masses, cystic and solid tumors, and fluid collections give dulness on percussion. When distended

intestines overlie a growth, however, the note will be tympanitic, and it will be necessary to employ deep and strong percussion to bring out the dulness. By carefully percussing around the margins of a tumor

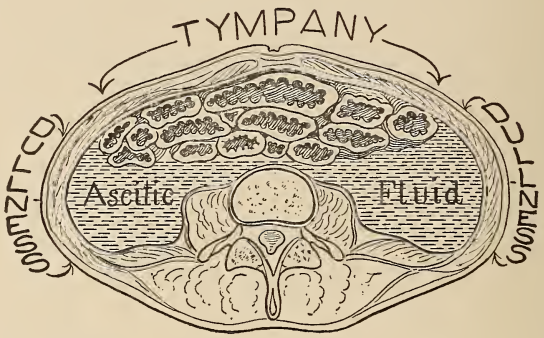


Fig. 723.—Showing the area of dulness and tympany in ascites when the patient is recumbent. (Ashton.)

and noting where tympanitic resonance is absent, it is often possible to determine the origin of the growth.

In the presence of ascites with the patient in the dorsal position, dulness will be elicited in the flanks, while the center of the abdomen

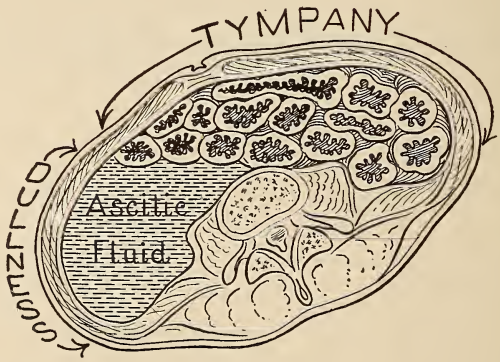


Fig. 724.—Showing the area of dulness and tympany in ascites when the patient lies on her side. (Ashton.)

will be tympanitic, as the intestines float to the highest point (Fig. 723). With a change in the patient's position the fluid gravitates to the lowest point and the location of the dulness and tympany is likewise changed (Fig. 724). On the other hand, the area of dulness due to tumors is not affected by changes in the patient's position.

AUSCULTATION.

Auscultation is of limited use except in the differential diagnosis between pregnancy and other tumors. In the former case the fetal heart sounds and the funic souffle settle the diagnosis. Much importance cannot be attached to the uterine bruit, however, in the absence of other signs pointing to pregnancy, as it is also heard in large fibroid tumors. In some cases of peritonitis it may be possible to hear a friction note.

MENSURATION.

Mensuration of the abdomen is useful in determining whether the abdomen is symmetrically enlarged or not, in noting any increase of ascites, and in recording the rapidity of enlargement in a tumor.

Position of Patient.—The measurements are taken with the patient in the horizontal recumbent position.

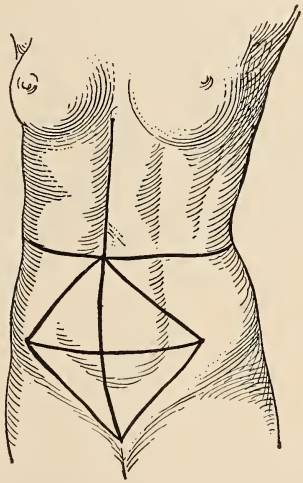


FIG. 725.—Showing the measurements taken in recording the growth of an abdominal tumor.

Technic.—An ordinary tape measure is employed and the following measurements are taken: (1) the circumference of the abdomen at the level of the umbilicus, (2) the distance from the ensiform cartilage to the pubes, (3) the distance from the umbilicus to each anterior superior spine, (4) the distance between the two anterior superior spines, and (5) the distance from the anterior superior spines to the pubes (Fig. 725). To have any value for purposes of comparison, these measurements should be taken from the same points each time and with the patient in exactly the same position.

II. Examination of the Pelvic Organs.

INSPECTION.

A careful inspection of the external genitals and the vaginal orifice should always be made as a routine before a digital examination, otherwise lesions involving the vulva and neighboring parts may entirely escape notice. Inflammations, new growths, the presence of abnormal secretions, prolapse of the anterior or posterior vaginal walls, lacerations of the perineum, and many other pathological conditions are readily recognized by inspection.

FIG. 726.—Inspection of the vaginal outlet. (Bandler.)

Position of the Patient.—Inspection is performed with the patient in the dorsal posture with the feet toward the light.

Technic.—The examiner sits or stands facing the vulva and begins his inspection without disturbing the relation of the parts. He should first note the general appearance of the vulva, whether the labia are closed or in apposition, and whether the vulva is the seat of inflamma-

tion, ulcerations, warts, swelling, edema, varicosites, eruptions, or excoriations, the latter a frequent accompaniment of a discharge. If a discharge is present, its color, quantity, and other characteristics should be noted.

The labia are next separated with the fingers of the left hand, and the entrance to the vagina is inspected (Fig. 726), noticing the color of the mucous membrane, the presence or absence of the hymen, the condition of the openings of the ducts of Bartholin and the orifice of the urethra, and the presence or absence of lacerations, cystocele, or rectocele. By instructing the patient to bear down or strain slightly,

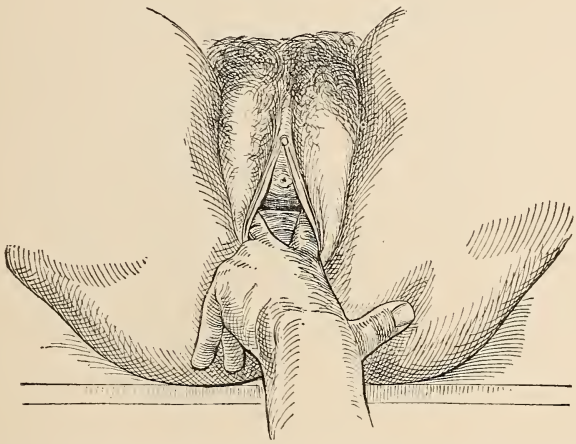


Fig. 727.—Method of exposing the anterior and posterior vaginal walls for inspection (Ashton.)

a prolapse of the anterior or posterior vaginal walls is made more evident. The hood of the clitoris should also be retracted and an examination made for adhesions or concretions that may be the cause of nervous symptoms. By retracting the perineum with two fingers inserted in the vagina, as shown in Fig. 727, the lower portion of the anterior and posterior vaginal walls may be brought to view.

EXAMINATION OF DISCHARGES.

If an abnormal discharge is present, specimens should be obtained at this time for later microscopical or bacteriological examination. The importance of such an examination cannot be too strongly emphasized. The technic for collecting and preparing the specimens has been previously detailed at length in Chapter VIII.

DIGITAL PALPATION.

Palpation by means of the finger is employed to obtain more complete information as to abnormal conditions of the vulva or vaginal outlet discovered on inspection, and to determine the condition of the vagina, vaginal fornices, and the cervix. For a satisfactory examination of the other pelvic organs, bimanual palpation is necessary.

Asepsis.—All the aseptic precautions previously detailed (page 686) should be observed.

Fig. 728.—The diagnosis of a cystocele by the aid of a bladder sound. (Ashton.)

Position of Patient.—The dorsal position is ordinarily employed, but the erect posture will be found useful in estimating the degree of a uterine prolapse.

Preparations.—(See page 683.)

Technic.—The examiner first palpates between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand any abnormal conditions, such as swellings, new growths, etc., about the vulva and the vaginal outlet, and also the glands of Bartholin for signs of inflammation or thickening.

The labia are then separated between the thumb and index-finger of the right hand, and the index-finger of the left hand, well lubricated, is introduced into the vagina. The condition of the vagina is then investigated, noting the presence or absence of congenital malformations, its sensitiveness, its temperature, and whether the vaginal walls have their normal roughness or are smooth and unduly relaxed. By turning the examining finger, palmar surface up, the anterior vaginal

wall may be palpated and the presence or absence of an urethrocele or a cystocele may be ascertained. By introducing a sound into the

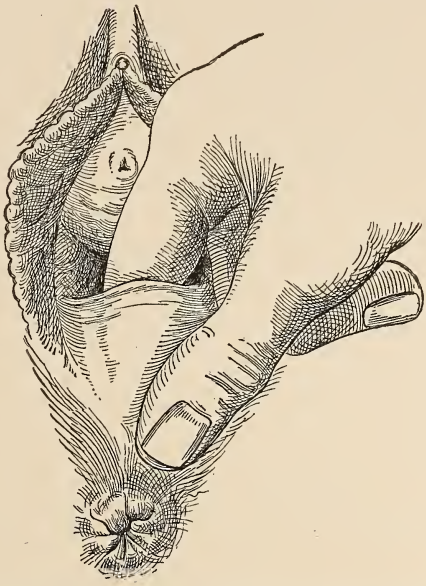


FIG. 729.—Method of estimating the thickness of the perineum. (Ashton.)

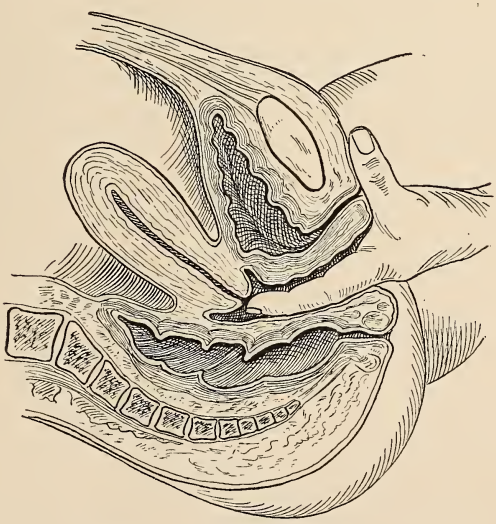


FIG. 730.—Digital palpation of the cervix. (Ashton.)

bladder and palpating its point with the finger in the vagina (Fig. 728) a cystocele, if present, may be more readily recognized. The posterior vaginal wall is likewise examined by rotating the examining finger,

palmar surface back, and, by placing the thumb of the same hand near the rectum the perineum may be grasped between the two fingers and its firmness and thickness estimated (Fig. 729). The vaginal fornices on all sides of the cervix are next palpated, noting their depth, any rigidity, induration, or tenderness.

If the uterus is in a normal position, it will be possible to feel its body through the anterior fornix, while, if retroverted, the latter will be felt in the posterior fornix. The condition of the uterus is more satisfactorily made out, however, by bimanual palpation.

Finally, the cervix is palpated (Fig. 730), noting especially its size, whether closed or oped, whether hard or soft, its mobility, and its position, that is, whether pointing backward toward the sacrum, as in retroflexion of the uterus, or pointing forward toward the symphysis, as is found when the uterus is retroverted or anteflexed. The presence or absence of lacerations, erosions, cysts, etc., should also be determined.

BIMANUAL PALPATION.

Bimanual palpation by means of the fingers of one hand in the vagina or rectum and the fingers of the other hand making counter-pressure above the symphysis is the most valuable method for investigating the condition of the pelvic organs. By it one may map out the size and shape of the uterus and determine its consistency, position, mobility, and the presence or absence of new growths. The tubes, ovaries, broad ligaments, etc., may likewise be palpated and their condition ascertained.

Vagino-abdominal palpation is the most satisfactory and the more generally employed method. It should be supplemented by recto-abdominal palpation, however, in any doubtful cases. The latter method is especially useful in exploring the posterior surface of the uterus and the appendages in cases of posterior displacement of the uterus, as these structures may then be more readily reached from the rectum than from the vagina. Recto-abdominal palpation is also indicated in children, in the unmarried, and in cases where the vagina is unduly sensitive or obstructed by tumors or an imperforate hymen.

To perform a successful bimanual examination it is necessary that the abdominal walls be thin, relaxed, and free from tenderness upon pressure, and that the vagina be sufficiently large to admit the fingers of the examining hand. In the case of individuals with very muscular, fat, or rigid abdominal walls or a small vagina the examination is usually unsatisfactory without an anesthetic. In any case, the examina-

tion must be performed with the utmost gentleness. Rough manipulations accomplish nothing and are capable of causing great harm, especially in cases where the pelvis contains a tube filled with pus, a thin walled cyst, an ectopic pregnancy, etc.

Asepsis.—For the necessary precautions against infection see page 686.

Position of Patient.—Bimanual palpation is most satisfactorily performed with the patient in the dorsal position.

Preparations.—(See page 683.)

Anesthesia.—General anesthesia is not often required in individuals with thin and relaxed abdominal walls, but in muscular, fat, or nervous individuals or where the parts are tender and sensitive an anesthetic may be necessary to secure relaxation. A general anesthesia should also be employed if any doubt remains as to the conditions found after an ordinary bimanual examination, and in all cases where it is necessary to make a vaginal examination upon virgins.

Technic.—1. *Vagino-abdominal.*—The examiner stands facing the patient a little to one side or the other depending upon which hand he palpates with. The labia are then separated between the thumb and forefinger of one hand and the index-finger of the other hand, or the index and middle fingers if the parts are sufficiently relaxed to admit them, are well lubricated and are inserted into the vagina, while the fingers of the free hand are placed on the abdomen above the pubes. The external hand is used to steady or depress the organs while the internal hand does the palpating. As a rule the left hand is employed to palpate with, being the smaller of the two and possessing greater tactile sensibility, but the examiner should be equally proficient with either hand. The last two fingers of the internal hand should be folded back upon the palm, as shown in Fig. 731, so as to invaginate the pelvic floor and thereby permit the greatest possible penetration. The palmar surfaces of the fingers of the internal hand are brought in contact with the cervix and its condition and position are first determined. With the internal fingers in contact with the cervix and exerting upward pressure the external hand locates the fundus of the uterus and makes gentle pressure from above. The length, sensitiveness, consistency, and position of the uterus are thus determined, and likewise the mobility by making a series of gentle pushes from above and below (Fig. 732).

By placing the internal fingers in front of the cervix and the fingers of the external hand behind the fundus the thickness of the uterus may be estimated (Fig. 733). If the fundus is pressed well forward by

the external hand, the anterior and lateral surfaces may be palpated and any irregularity of the surfaces which might be caused by fibroids or other growths is noted. By carrying the fingers of the internal hand posterior to the cervix and pressing the fundus backward the posterior surface is in like manner explored. When the fundus is not found in its normal position, it should be sought for anteriorly near the symphysis, or posteriorly. To palpate for anterior displacements, the internal finger is carried up in front of the cervix into the anterior fornix while the external hand exerts pressure downward behind the symphysis. If anteflexed, the fundus will be readily felt between the

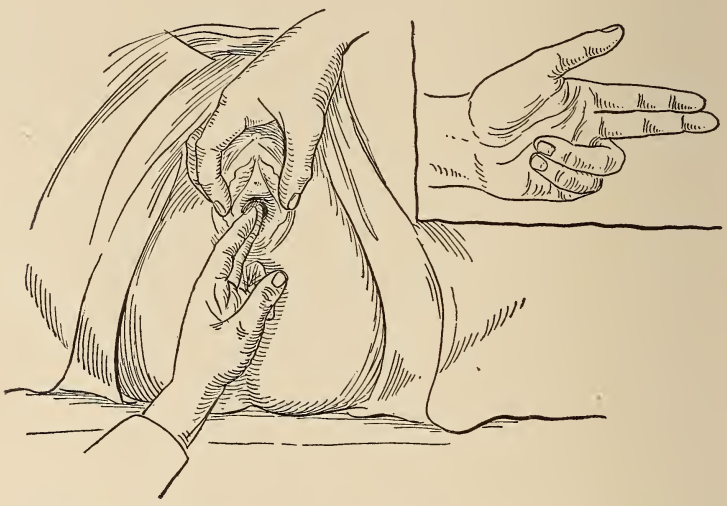


Fig. 731.—Method of inserting the examining fingers in bimanual palpation. Small figure shows the method of holding the fingers.

fingers of the external and internal hands (Fig. 734), while in posterior displacements the opposed fingers may be brought together as shown in Fig. 735. In such case the fundus should then be sought posteriorly by carrying the internal finger up into the posterior cul-de-sac while external pressure is made by the external hand from above (Fig. 736).

A posterior flexion will be readily differentiated from a version by the bend or angle on the posterior aspect of the uterus (Fig. 737). In the presence of a posterior displacement it should be determined whether the uterus is mobile or fixed through adhesions by passing the internal fingers high up posteriorly and by the aid of the external hand attempting to lift the uterus up.

After thoroughly examining the uterus the condition of the broad and uterosacral ligaments should be ascertained. By carrying the

fingers up beside the cervix into the lateral fornices and making counter-pressure from above the condition of the broad ligaments may be

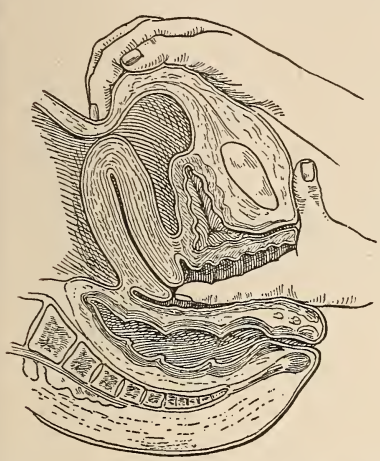


FIG. 732.—Method of determining the length and mobility of the uterus. (Ashton.)

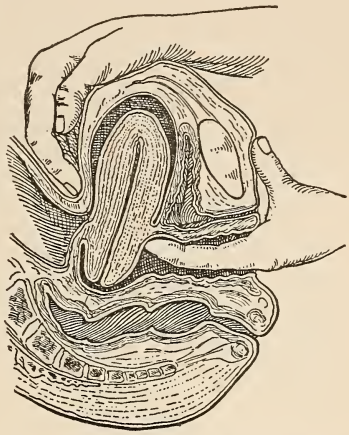


FIG. 733.—Method of estimating the thickness of the uterus. (Ashton.)

determined, and any pain on pressure, thickening, or induration noted. Palpation of the uterosacral ligaments through the posterior fornix may be performed in like manner.

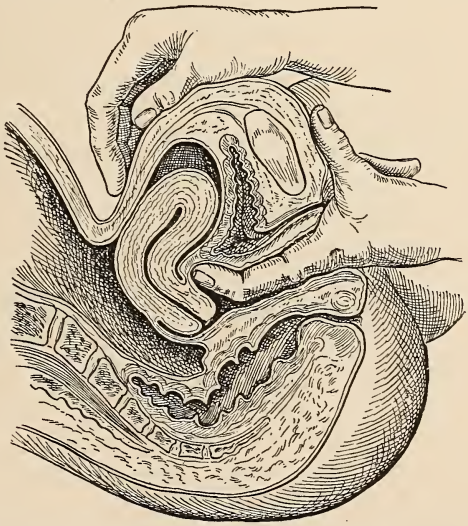


FIG. 734.—Diagnosis of an anteflexion of the uterus by bimanual palpation. (Ashton.)

The tubes and ovaries should also be examined with reference to their size, shape, consistency, sensitiveness, position, and mobility.

It is of advantage to use the right hand in palpating the right side and the left hand for the left side. The examining fingers are inserted well

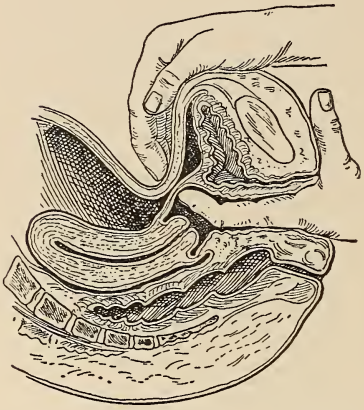


FIG. 735—Diagnosis of a posterior displacement of the uterus by bimanual palpation. (Ashton.)

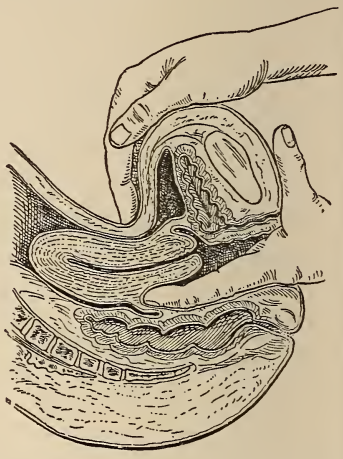


FIG. 736.—Shows the method of palpating the body of the uterus in a posterior displacement. (Ashton.)

up in the lateral fornix beside the cervix in an upward and backward direction, while the external hand makes deep pressure downward through the abdominal wall on the corresponding side. By altering

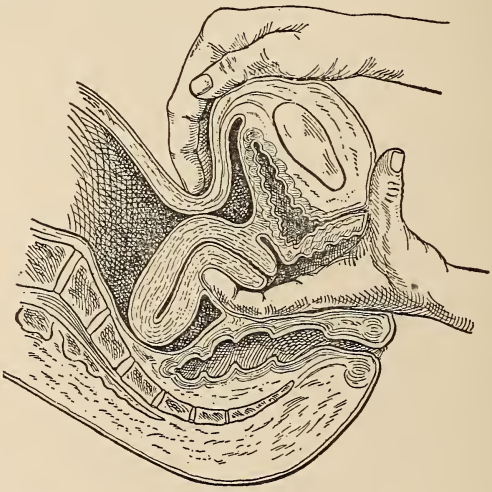


FIG. 737.—Diagnosis of a posterior flexion of the uterus by bimanual palpation. (Ashton.)

the position of the fingers of the two hands from time to time the ovary and tube are finally grasped between the opposed fingers (Fig. 738).

Except where the abdominal walls are extremely thin and the vagina is relaxed, the normal tube cannot be felt, but, when enlarged, it may be readily recognized at a club-shaped mass gradually narrowing down

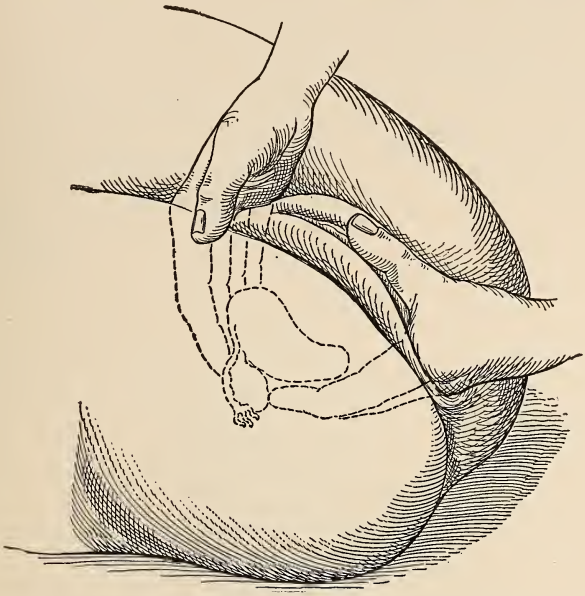


Fig. 738.—Examination of the uterine appendages by bimanual palpation. (Ashton.)

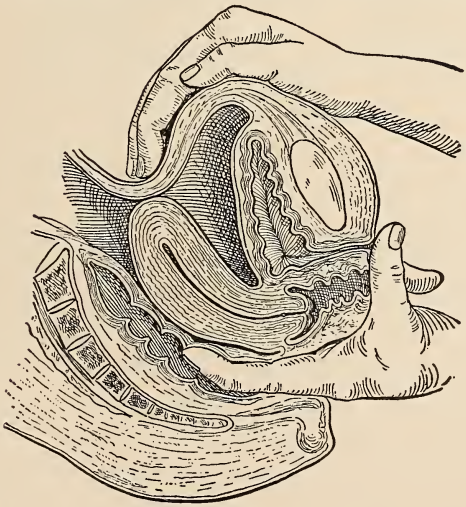


Fig. 739.—Recto-abdominal palpation of the uterus. (Ashton.)

as it approaches the uterus. The normal ovaries, however, are generally palpable as small, oval masses, somewhat tender upon pressure, on each side of the uterus. When, as the result of chronic inflammation,

extensive adhesive formation has taken place the tubes and ovaries are often matted together into irregular masses, and it may not be possible to map them out separately. Having examined one side of the pelvis, the same procedure is repeated upon the other side.

2. *Recto-abdominal.*—The examiner stands facing the patient and inserts the well-lubricated index-finger of the left hand high into the rectum. At the same time the external hand placed on the abdomen above the symphysis makes counter-pressure, while the uterus and

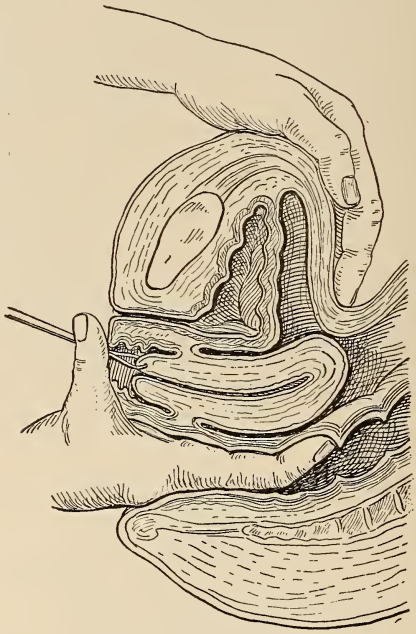


Fig. 740.—Recto-abdominal palpation of the uterus with the latter drawn toward the vaginal outlet by means of a tenaculum. (Ashton.)

appendages are carefully palpated (Fig. 739). Care must be taken, however, not to exert too much force with the fingers in the rectum for fear of lacerating or otherwise injuring the bowel.

By drawing the uterus well down by means of a pair of bullet forceps caught in the cervix, and then performing recto-abdominal palpation, a much more complete examination is possible (Fig. 740). This method, however, should never be attempted when the uterus is fixed by adhesions or the appendages are inflamed. As a rule, general anesthesia is necessary. Care should always be taken to replace the uterus in its normal position at the completion of such an examination.

EXAMINATION BY SPECULA.

By means of suitable specula the mucous membrane of the entire vagina and cervix may be directly inspected. The use of specula

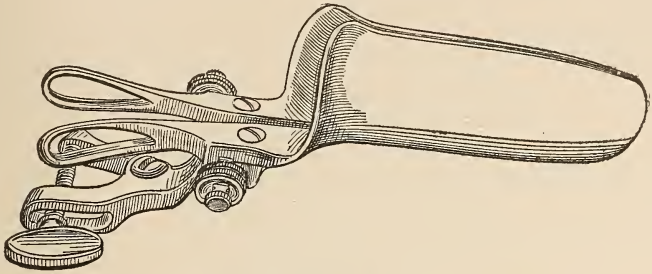


FIG. 741.—Goodell's vaginal speculum. (Ashton.)

furnishes little information outside of the color and condition of the mucous membrane and the origin of a discharge, which is not as readily

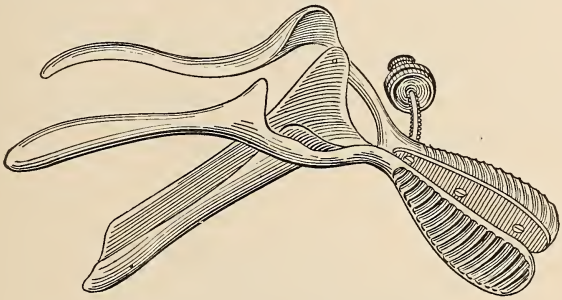


FIG. 742.—Trivalve vaginal speculum.

obtainable by digital palpation. In gynecological treatment and operative procedures, however, specula are indispensable.

FIG. 743.—Sims' vaginal speculum. (Ashton.)

Instruments.—Numerous specula have been devised, such as the bivalve (Fig. 741), the trivalve (Fig. 742), the cylindrical, the Sims

(Fig. 743), Simon's, the self-retaining weighted speculum, etc., etc. For diagnostic purposes the bivalve and the Sims specula are probably most commonly employed. To prevent the anterior vaginal

Fig. 744.—Vaginal depressor. (Ashton.)

wall from obscuring the view when using the Sims speculum a vaginal depressor is also required (Fig. 744). A sponge holder (Fig. 745) and cotton wipes should be provided for removing secretions.

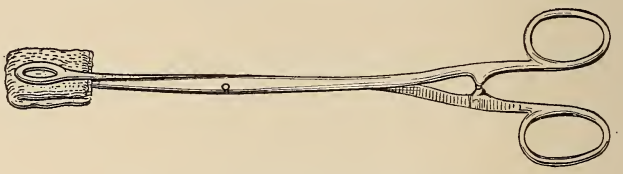


Fig. 745.—Sponge holder and swab.

Asepsis.—The speculum should be sterilized by boiling for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution before use.

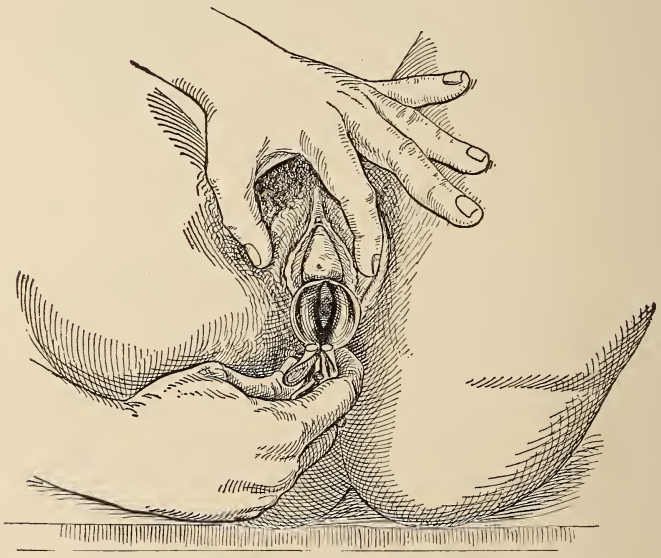


Fig. 746.—Method of inserting the bivalve speculum. (Ashton.)

Position of Patient.—When the bivalve or trivalve speculum is employed the patient should be in the dorsal position. In using the

perineal retractors, such as the Sims, the left lateral or the knee-chest position may be employed.

Preparations of Patient.—(See page 683.)

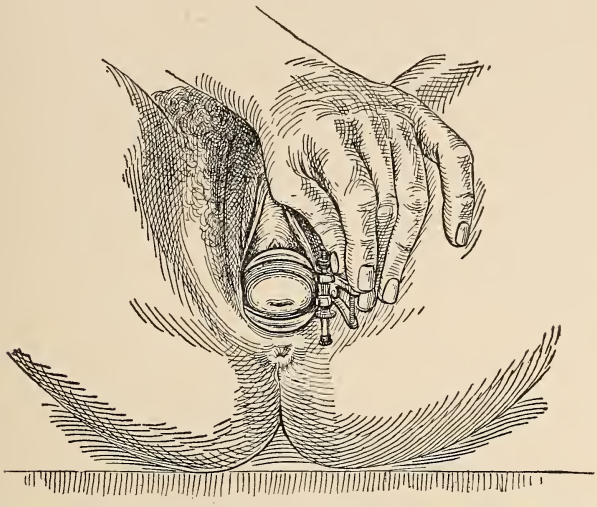


Fig. 747.—Method of exposing the lateral walls of the vagina by means of the bivalve speculum. (Ashton.)

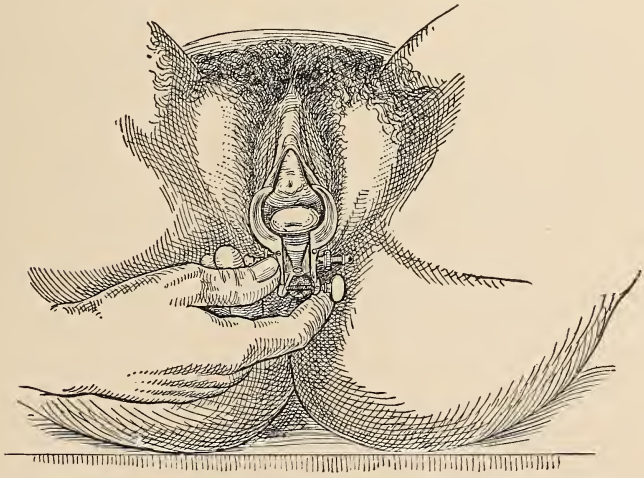


Fig. 748.—Method of exposing the anterior and posterior vaginal walls by means of a bivalve speculum. (Ashton.)

Technic.—1. *With the Bivalve Speculum.*—The examiner stands or sits facing the vulva. Then, with the labia well separated between the index and middle fingers of the left hand, the speculum, well lubri-

cated, is inserted into the vagina with its blades parallel to the vulva opening (Fig. 746). The speculum is introduced about 2 inches (5 cm.) and is then rotated so that the blades lie parallel with the anterior and posterior vaginal walls. By widely separating the blades (Fig. 747) a view of the cervix and the lateral walls of the vagina is obtained. For inspection of the anterior and posterior vaginal walls the blades of the speculum are turned so that they lie parallel with the outlet of the vulva and they are then opened (Fig. 748). The condition of the entire vaginal mucous membrane may be thus ascertained, and inflammatory conditions, a fistulous opening, new growths, etc., will be readily recognized if present. If a discharge is present, its origin should be determined.

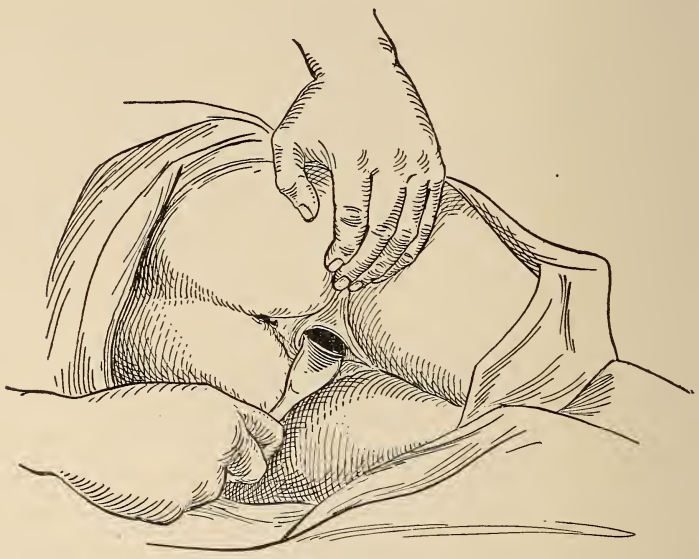


Fig. 749.—Shows the method of inserting Sims' speculum.

The cervix is then inspected, noting its size and shape and whether it is lacerated or is the seat of inflammation, erosions, cysts, or new growths, and whether a discharge issues from the external os. If secretions obstruct the view, they should be carefully wiped away by means of cotton wipes held by a sponge holder. In some cases, where the vagina is very long and narrow, a clear view of the cervix can only be obtained by drawing it down into the vagina by means of a tenaculum or bullet forceps.

2. *With the Sims Speculum.*—The shaft of the speculum is grasped in the operator's right hand while with the left hand the upper buttock

FIG. 750.—Showing the Sims speculum in place. (Ashton.)

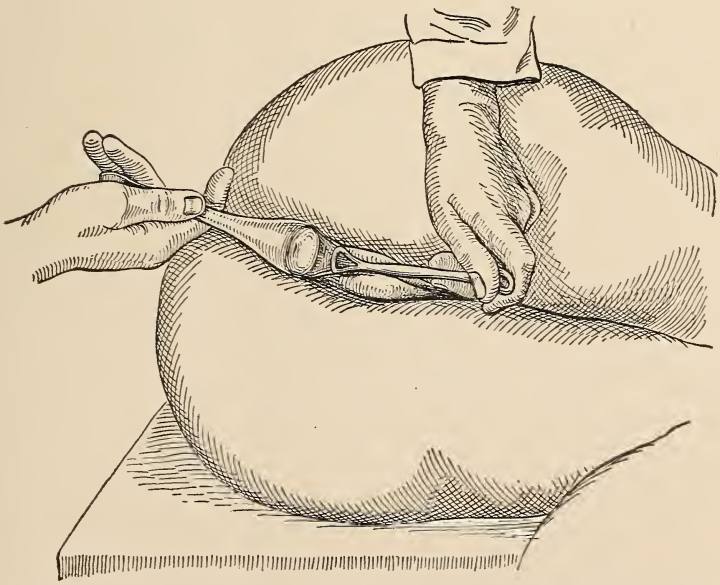


FIG. 751.—Method of inspecting the cervix by the aid of the Sims speculum and a vaginal depressor. (Ashton.)

is raised so that the vulva is well separated. The blade of the speculum, which has been previously lubricated, is then inserted into the vagina parallel with the cleft of the vulva (Fig. 749). The blade is then rotated so that it lies parallel with the anterior and posterior vaginal walls and is further introduced until its distal end lies back of the cervix. By making traction backward and outward the perineum is retracted so that an excellent view of the anterior vaginal wall and cervix is obtained (Fig. 750). Should the anterior vaginal wall obstruct the view, it may be drawn out of the way by means of the vaginal retractor as shown in Fig. 751.

SOUNDING THE UTERUS.

The uterine sound, which was formerly employed to a great extent in gynecological diagnosis, is now seldom used, as little information is gained by its use, outside of determining the length, size, and consistency of the uterine cavity, that is not as readily obtainable by other and less dangerous means. The sound should always be regarded as an intrument capable of great harm and the operation of sounding as anything but simple. The unskilled use of the uterine sound has often led to the introduction of septic material into the uterus carried from the vagina or cervix, as well as to the infliction of serious injury upon the uterine mucous membrane and even perforation of that organ. To avoid these risks the position of the uterus should be ascertained before an attempt is made to introduce the sound, and, during the attempt, only gentle manipulations of the instrument should be made; it should never be used as a means of righting a displaced uterus. The sound should never be introduced by touch alone, but always with the cervix clearly exposed by means of a speculum, and in every case the date of the last menstruation should be ascertained beforehand so as not to interrupt a possible pregnancy. Its use is contraindicated if the uterus is infected or is the seat of a malignant disease, or if the uterine appendages are involved in a suppurative disease.

Instruments.—The operator will require a vaginal speculum, a pair of bullet forceps, cotton wipes, a sponge holder, and a uterine sound (Fig. 752).

The sound is made of flexible metal, about 12 inches (30 cm.) long and from 1/12 to 1/8 inch (2 to 3 mm.) thick, with a bulbous tip. The shaft is marked off in inches, and 2 1/2 inches (6 cm.) from the distal end is a small protuberance to indicate the normal depth of the uterus.

Asepsis.—The introduction of a sound or any instrument into the uterus should be regarded as a surgical operation and should be carried out with every aseptic detail. All the instruments should be boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The external genitals should be thoroughly cleansed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution and the vagina should be douched with some antiseptic. The operator's hands are cleansed as thoroughly as for any operation.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the lithotomy position.

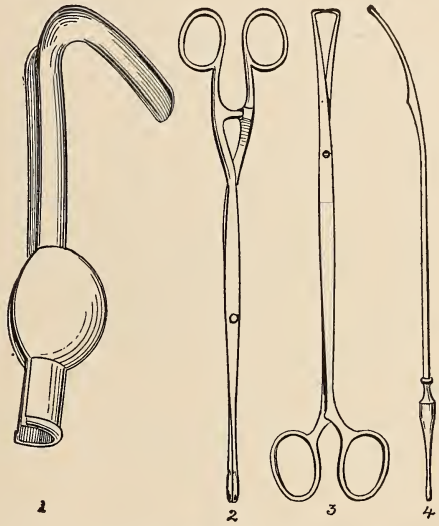


FIG. 752.—Instruments for sounding the uterus.
1, Garrigues' weighted speculum; 2, dressing forceps; 3, tenaculum; 4, uterine sound.

Technic.—The operator sits facing the vulva and, after separating the labia, introduces the speculum. The anterior lip of the cervix is then seized by means of bullet forceps and, after being pulled down into view, is thoroughly wiped off with a cotton swab soaked in a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution. The sound with its distal 3 inches (7.6 cm.) bent in a slight forward curve is grasped lightly between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand and is introduced into the external os, being careful not to touch any portion of the vagina. By gently depressing its handle the sound should readily glide up the canal to the fundus. If the point is arrested by catching in a fold of mucous membrane or at the internal os, gentle manipulation will usually result in its passage—*force should never be employed.*

Sometimes, when the cervix is bent forward, the sound may be more readily passed if it is started with the concavity of its curve turned backward and, as soon as it becomes arrested, rotating it forward. When the tip of the instrument reaches the fundus, the operator's right index-finger should be slid along the shaft of the instrument until it comes in contact with the cervix for the purpose of indicating the depth of the canal when the instrument is removed (Fig. 753).

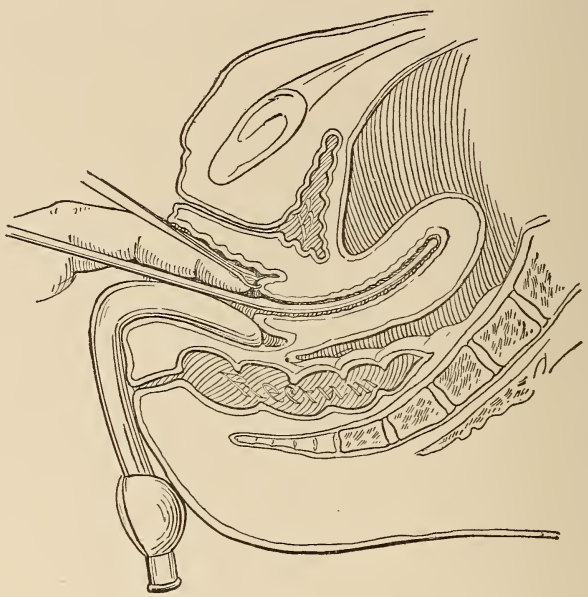


Fig. 753.—Showing the method of estimating the length of the uterus by means of the uterine sound.

DIGITAL PALPATION OF THE UTERINE CAVITY.

Digital exploration of the interior of the uterus is occasionally required in the diagnosis of intrauterine growths or retained products of conception which are not revealed by other methods of examination. With the finger in the cavity of the uterus it is possible to determine whether the uterus is empty or not, the length and direction of the canal, and the thickness, consistency, and other characteristics of the endometrium.

Digital exploration necessitates a thorough preliminary dilatation of the cervix, except in puerperal cases, and should, therefore, be considered in the same light as a surgical operation. It should not be attempted until the possibility of pregnancy has been excluded by determining the date of the last menstruation and by a careful exami-

nation. In the presence of pelvic inflammation or exudates it is contraindicated.

Instruments.—Instruments for dilating the cervix are required. These include a vaginal speculum, a pair of dilators, sponge holders, and two bullet forceps. (See Fig. 806.)

Asepsis.—Strict aseptic precautions should be observed. The external genitals are washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The vagina is scrubbed with soap and water by means of a sponge on a holder and is then douched with an antiseptic solution. The instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution and the operator's hands are prepared with the same care as for any operation.

Fig. 754.—Digital exploration of the uterine cavity. (Ashton.)

Position of Patient.—The lithotomy position is employed.

Anesthesia.—General anesthesia is required except in postpartum cases.

Technic.—The cervix is first dilated sufficiently to admit the operator's finger (see page 746). The index-finger of the right hand or, where possible, as in postpartum cases, the index and middle fingers are then passed into the uterus, while, with the left hand on the abdomen, the operator presses down upon the fundus uteri, so as to bring the uterus within reach of the internal fingers (Fig. 754). The interior of the uterus is then systematically explored by the internal fingers.

THE EXAMINATION OF SECTIONS AND SCRAPINGS FROM THE UTERUS.

To determine the nature of a suspicious growth a portion should be excised for examination. The method of doing this has already been described (page 226). Where the interior of the uterus is the seat of suspected disease, scrapings from the endometrium should be collected by a thorough curettage for examination (see page 751).

EXPLORATORY INCISION.

Direct palpation of the pelvic structures is sometimes required in the diagnosis of obscure pelvic conditions. It may be accomplished by means of an abdominal incision or through a small opening made in the cul-de-sac of Douglas. The latter method is preferable, as it is not a dangerous operation, and the recovery of the patient is more rapid than when an abdominal section is performed. The operator

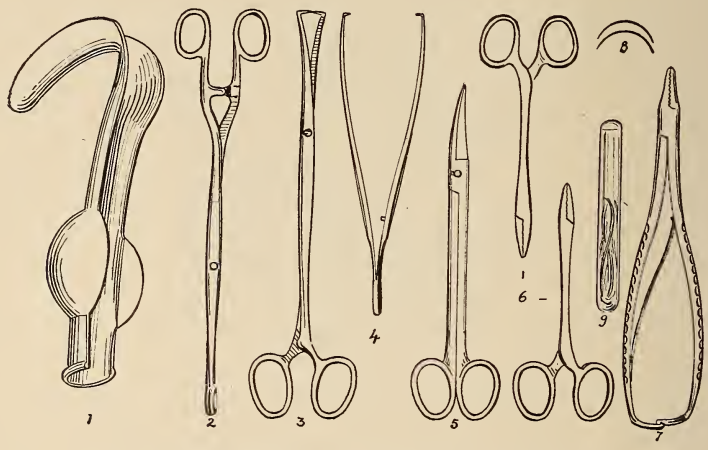


Fig. 755.—Instruments for an exploratory vaginal section.
1, Garrigues' weighted speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenaculum; 4, thumb forceps; 5, sharp-pointed scissors; 6, artery clamps; 7, needle holder; 8, needles; 9, No. 2 catgut.

should be prepared, however, to perform any operative procedures, such as draining a pus sac, removing suppurating tubes, or opening the abdomen, if the findings indicate it.

Instruments.—There will be required a weighted vaginal speculum, sponge holders, bullet forceps, toothed thumb forceps, sharp-pointed curved scissors, artery clamps, curved cutting-edged needles, a needle holder, and No. 2 catgut (Fig. 755).

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The external genitals are scrubbed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution, and the vagina is cleansed by first washing with soap and water and then by means of an antiseptic douche. The operator's hands are sterilized in the usual way.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the lithotomy position.

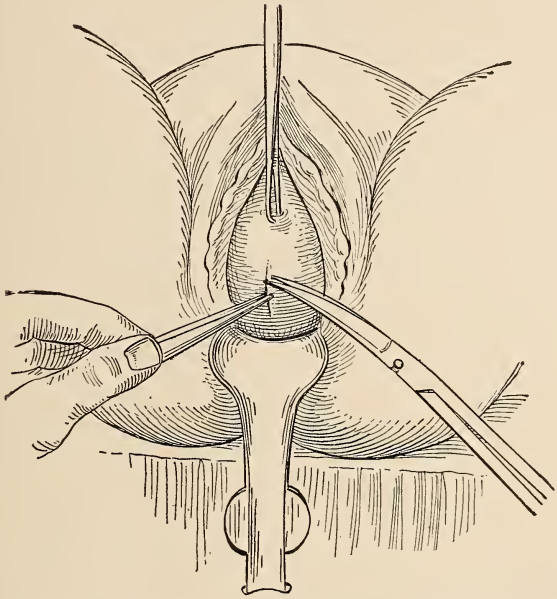


Fig. 756.—First step in performing a posterior vaginal section, opening into the posterior cul-de-sac.

Preparation of Patient.—The patient should have been prepared for general anesthesia and the bowels and bladder should be empty at the time of operation.

Anesthesia.—General anesthesia is employed.

Technic.—The vaginal speculum is placed in the vagina and the posterior lip of the cervix is seized in bullet forceps which are given to an assistant to hold. The operator then picks up the posterior vaginal wall by means of thumb forceps at a point in the mid-line, just back of where it is reflected from the cervix, and with a pair of scissors makes a transverse incision about 1 inch (2.5 cm.) long through the vaginal wall (Fig. 756). The vaginal wall posterior to the incision is then separated by blunt dissection from the underlying peritoneum

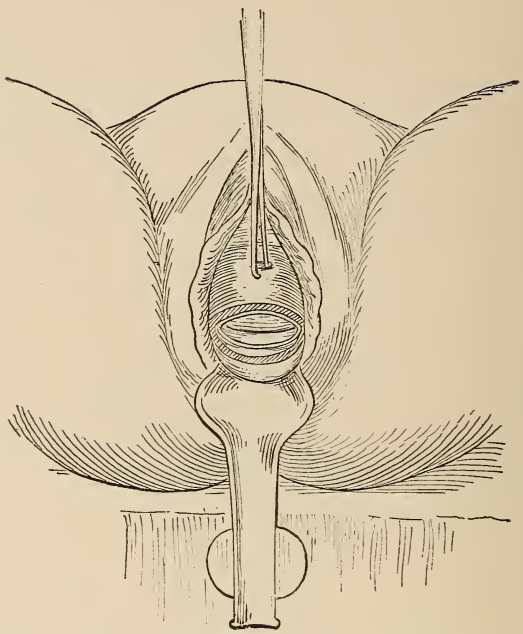


FIG. 757.—Shows the posterior cul-de-sac opened.

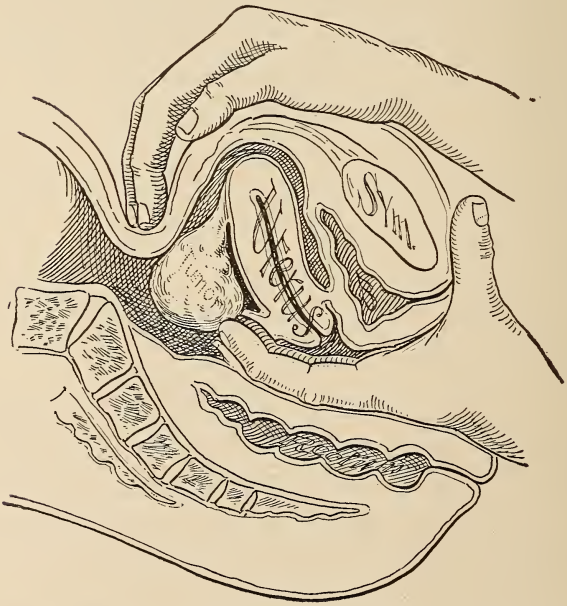


FIG 758.—Shows the method of palpating a tumor through an incision into the posterior cul-de-sac.

for a short space (Fig. 757). The peritoneum thus exposed is then picked up and a transverse opening, sufficiently large to admit the fingers, is made in it. Through this opening the pelvic structures may be thoroughly palpated by the finger (Fig. 758), and if desired the appendages may be brought down to view and inspected.

At the completion of the operation the opening in the peritoneum and that in the vaginal wall are closed by a few catgut sutures.

Therapeutic Measures.

VAGINAL IRRIGATIONS.

Vaginal irrigation, or douching, may be employed for simple cleansing purposes, as in leukorrhea or in preparation for operative procedures, for the purpose of bringing soothing, astringent, or antiseptic solutions in contact with diseased vaginal or cervical mucous membrane, and as a means of applying heat to the pelvic organs to relieve congestion or inflammation, to hasten involution after labor,

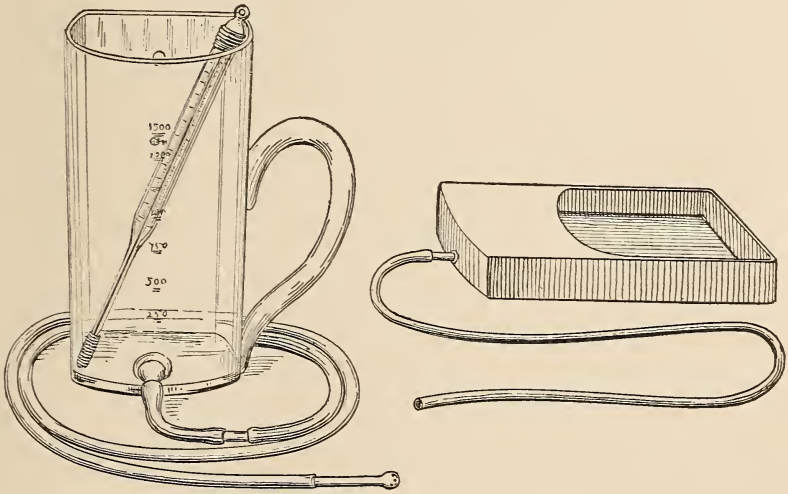


FIG. 759.—Apparatus for vaginal douching.

to control uterine hemorrhage, etc. In pregnancy and during menstruation they should be used with caution.

Apparatus.—There will be required a large glass irrigating jar or douche bag, a bath thermometer, 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing, 1/4 inch (6.3 mm.) in diameter, leading from the reservoir to the

douche nozzle, a glass vaginal douche nozzle, and a douche pan with a spout to which is attached a piece of rubber tubing sufficiently long to convey the waste fluid to a slop pail (Fig. 759).

The douche nozzle should preferably be of glass *without any curve* and *having perforations on the sides* but *with none at the end* (Fig. 760). With such an instrument there is little danger of the solution entering the uterus in cases of a patulous cervix.

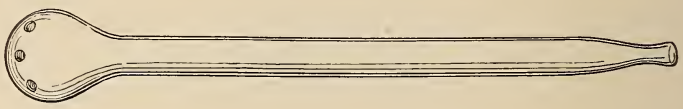


FIG. 760.—Enlarged view of a glass vaginal douche nozzle.

Asepsis.—The greatest care should be taken against infection especially in puerperal cases. The apparatus should, therefore, be boiled for five minutes in plain water and the thermometer should be sterilized by immersion in a 1 to 500 bichlorid of mercury solution, after which it is rinsed in sterile water. The attendant's hands should be cleansed in the usual way and the external genitals should be washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution. When the patient administers the douches herself, the dangers of infection and the proper means of avoiding it should be carefully explained to her.

Solutions Used.—Among the many solutions used for vaginal injection are the following: Plain sterile water; normal salt solution—salt ʒi (3.9 gm.) to the pint (473.11 c.c.) of boiled water;—boric acid, 2 per cent.; thymol 1 to 1000; lysol 1 per cent.; creolin 1 per cent.; tannic acid ʒi (3.9 gm.) to the quart (liter); alum acetate ʒi (3.9 gm.) to the quart (liter); permanganate of potash 1 to 2000; bichlorid of mercury 1 to 5000; carbolic acid 1 per cent., etc. The use of poisonous drugs, such as the latter two, should be followed by a douche of sterile water or saline to avoid any danger of absorption.

Temperature.—Ordinarily the irrigation is given at a temperature of 100° to 105° F. When the stimulating and vascular constricting effect of heat is desired, however, the temperature should be from 115° to 120° F.

Quantity.—At least 1 gallon (4 liters) of solution should be used at a time. If it is desired to obtain a prolonged effect from the heat, several gallons may be used over a period of fifteen to thirty minutes.

Height of Elevation.—This is important, since, if the reservoir is elevated too high, the pressure will be so great that solution may be

forced into the uterus. An elevation of 2 to 3 feet (60 to 90 cm.) is amply sufficient.

Frequency.—This will depend upon the purposes of the douche from once a day to three or more times daily.

Position of Patient.—The patient lies in bed on a douche pan in the dorsal position, with the knees flexed, or else recumbent in a bath tub. The douche *should not be taken with the patient sitting on the toilet.*

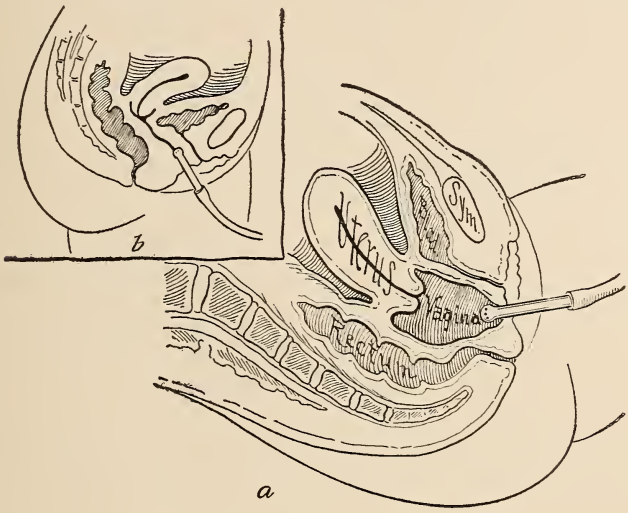


Fig. 761.—Showing the correct (*a*) and the incorrect (*b*) method of giving a vaginal douche. (Ashton.)

Technic.—The labia are widely separated with the fingers of the left hand and with the right hand the nozzle is introduced into the vagina, first, however, allowing the solution to flow in order to expel any air or cold fluid. The desired amount of solution is then permitted to enter the vagina which balloons up under the influence of the distention and thus allows the solution to come in contact with its entire surface (Fig. 761).

In cases of a relaxed vagina, it is necessary to compress the vaginal outlet somewhat about the douche tube in order to obtain this distention. This procedure should, however, be used with caution in puerperal cases, for, if the intravaginal pressure be too great, some of the solution will necessarily be forced into the uterus. During the irrigation care must be taken to protect the patient from cold by suitable covering.

LOCAL APPLICATIONS TO THE VAGINA AND CERVIX.

Local applications are employed in treating inflammations of the vagina and the vaginal portion of the cervix. They may be made by means of cotton-tipped applicators or by tampons (see page 719). The former method should be employed when it is desired to medicate localized areas of inflammation or ulceration or to employ strong solutions.

Instruments.—There will be required a bivalve vaginal speculum and a metal applicator or a pair of dressing forceps (Fig. 762).

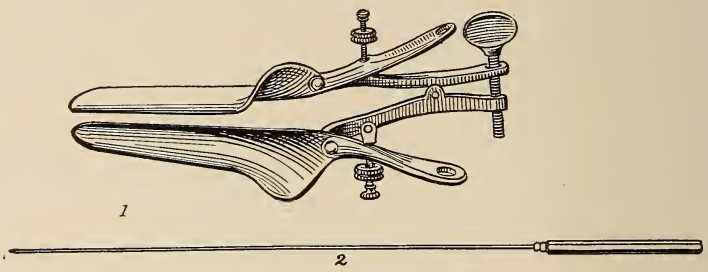


Fig. 762.—Instruments for making local applications to the vagina. 1, Bivalve speculum; 2, applicator.

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled in a 1 per cent. soda solution for five minutes and the external genitals are cleansed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The operator's hands should likewise be clean.

Solutions Used.—Tincture of iodin, silver nitrate gr. xx to xxx (1.3 to 1.95 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), argyrol 50 per cent., copper sulphate gr. v to xx (0.32 to 1.3 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), zinc sulphate gr. v to xx (0.32 to 1.3 gm.) to the ounce (30 c.c.), etc., are among the solutions generally employed.

Frequency.—Applications may be made every three or four days.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be upon a firm table in the dorsal position.

Technic.—The diseased area is exposed by means of a speculum and, after removing any mucus or secretion, the surface it is desired to medicate is wiped dry. An applicator or dressing forceps wrapped with cotton is then dipped in the solution and the saturated swab is thoroughly rubbed over the diseased area. Following this a light vaginal tampon is inserted and allowed to remain in place twelve to twenty-four hours.

APPLICATION OF POWDERS TO THE VAGINA.

Powders are sometimes employed with success in place of liquids in the treatment of chronic vaginitis, especially if ulcerated surfaces are present.

Instruments.—A vaginal speculum, dressing forceps, and a powder blower are required (Fig. 763).

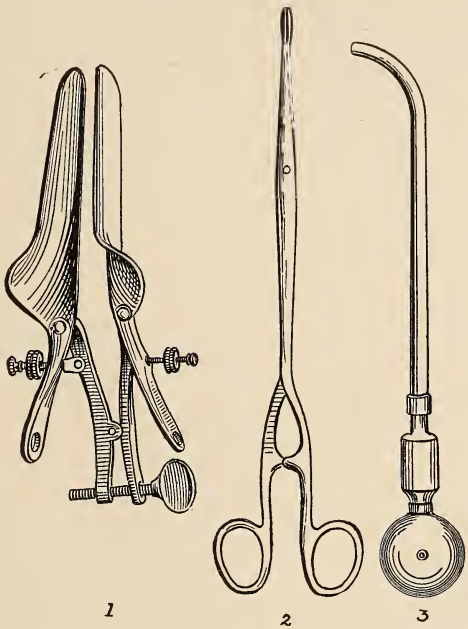


FIG. 763.—Instruments for the application of powders to the vagina. 1, Bivalve speculum; 2, dressing forceps; 3, powder blower.

Formulary.—Soothing or astringent powders, such as boric acid, zinc oxid, bismuth subnitrate, calomel, tannic acid, glycerole of tannin, acetanilid, alone or in combination, are frequently employed.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal posture.

Technic.—The vagina is first well cleansed with a douche. A speculum is then inserted and, by means of a cotton swab held in a dressing forceps, the mucous membrane is thoroughly dried. The entire inflamed surface is then coated with the desired powder applied by means of the powder blower. A light tampon is finally inserted and is left in place for twenty-four hours.

VAGINAL TAMPONS.

Vaginal tampons are used for a variety of purposes, namely, to bring medication in contact with the vagina or the cervix in the treat-

ment of inflammations involving these structures, to protect and keep separated inflamed or ulcerated vaginal walls, to apply glycerin for its depleting effect upon the uterus and pelvic organs, to support a prolapsed ovary, for the purpose of stretching adhesions or supporting the uterus by distention of the vagina and fornices, and alone or in combination with the uterine pack to control hemorrhage from the uterus.

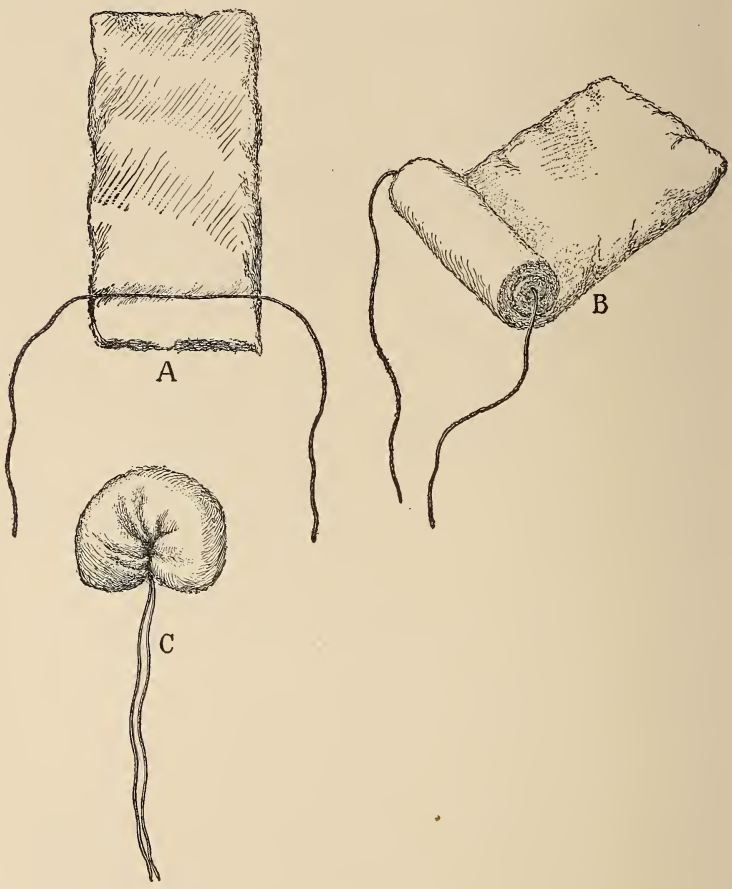


Fig. 764.—Showing the method of making a cotton vaginal tampon. (Kelly and Noble.)

Tampons should not be left in place more than twenty-four hours, as they tend to become foul and offensive, and strings should always be attached to that they may be removed by the patient. The patient should, of course, be informed of the exact number of tampons inserted.

Instruments.—Bivalve and Sims' specula and dressing forceps are required.

The Tampon.—Tampons are made of absorbent cotton, lambs' wool, or gauze. For carrying medication absorbent cotton is preferable, while for purposes of support lambs' wool or gauze, having more body, are best.

The cotton tampon is made by cutting a flat layer of absorbent cotton into an oblong shape, placing a heavy silk string about 14 inches (35 cm.) long, across its center as shown in Fig. 764, and rolling the cotton about the string. On tying the string the two ends of the cotton roll are brought together and, at the same time, the string is buried in and securely fastened to the cotton.

Lambs' wool tampons may be made in the same manner or a silk string may be simply tied to the center of a wad of the wool.

A gauze tampon should consist of a single piece of gauze 3 feet (90 cm.) or more long, depending on the capacity of the vagina and the firmness with which it is to be packed, and folded to a width of about 2 inches (5 cm.).

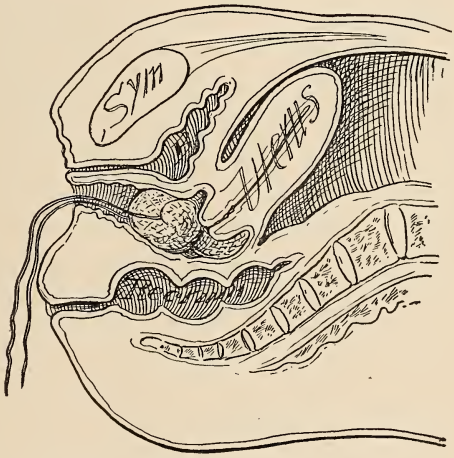


Fig. 765.—Vaginal tampons in position.

The Medicated Tampon.—The tampon is made as above described and is then saturated with the desired medication. For this purpose the following drugs are employed: Ichthyol and glycerin 25 per cent., boroglycerid, glycerite of tannic acid 20 per cent., argyrol 10 to 25 per cent., protargol 2 per cent., etc. When indicated the tampon may be covered with some of the powders mentioned on page 719 in place of these solutions.

Asepsis.—The instruments should be boiled and the tampons thoroughly sterilized. The external genitals are washed with soap

and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution. The operator's hands are cleansed in the usual way.

Position of Patient.—For inserting the medicated tampon the patient may be in the dorsal posture, but when it is desired to thoroughly pack the vaginal vault for the purposes of support and to control hemorrhage the Sims or the knee-chest posture is preferable.

Preparations of Patient.—The bladder and bowels should be empty. Any clots or secretions are wiped from the vagina and the entire vagina is then swabbed out with a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

Technic.—For applying a medicated tampon a bivalve speculum is inserted and the tampon, soaked in the medicament, is carried in

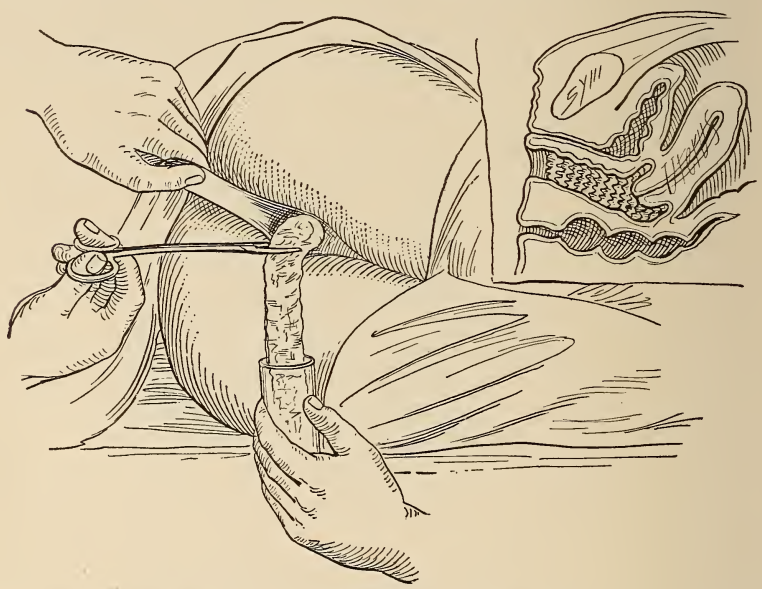


Fig. 766.—Shows the method of packing the vagina with the patient in the Sims position.

dressing forceps to the desired spot. A wool tampon is then inserted to retain the first one in position and, while the tampons are held securely in place by means of the dressing forceps, the speculum is removed, care being taken that the strings attached to the tampons are left hanging from the vagina (Fig. 765).

The tampon is to be removed by the patient within twenty-four hours, at which time a cleansing douche should be taken.

To thoroughly pack the vagina, as is necessary for example, for the control of hemorrhage, the patient being in the Sims or the knee-chest posture, a Sims speculum is inserted and the posterior vaginal

wall is put upon the stretch. Then, by means of a pair of dressing forceps, the entire vagina is thoroughly tamponed with a strip of gauze, beginning with the posterior vaginal fornix, then filling the lateral and anterior fornices, and, as the rest of the vagina is packed, gradually withdrawing the speculum (Fig. 766). A T-bandage is then applied to retain the pack in place. Such a pack properly inserted will control any ordinary hemorrhage from a nonpuerperal uterus, but in severe hemorrhages and in postpartum cases the uterus also should be tamponed (page 729).

Removal of the packing in twelve or twenty-four hours should be followed by a cleansing douche.

THE INTRAUTERINE DOUCHE.

Uterine douches are employed in the treatment of septic conditions affecting the uterus, to control hemorrhage, and for cleansing the uterus after curettage and other intrauterine operations. They are more dangerous than vaginal douches, and certain precautions in their use are necessary. They should always be given by the physician himself and in their use the same care and attention to cleanliness should be observed as in any operative procedure. It is absolutely essential that a free and unimpeded return of the solution be provided by having the cervix well dilated or by employing a return-flow irrigating nozzle, otherwise there is danger of overdistention of the uterus with resulting shock or of the fluid being forced into the uterus through the tubes. Furthermore, *the use of poisonous drugs, such as carbolic acid or bichlorid of mercury, should always be followed by an intrauterine irrigation of sterile water or of normal salt solution.*

Apparatus.—There will be required a glass irrigating jar or a large douche bag, a thermometer, 6 feet (180 cm.) of rubber tubing, 1/4 inch (6.3 mm.) in diameter, connecting the reservoir and the douche nozzle, a douche pan with a spout to which is attached a piece of rubber tubing sufficiently long to convey the returning fluid to a waste pail (see Fig. 759).

There are several forms of intrauterine douche nozzles. When the cervix is widely dilated, as in postpartum cases, a curved glass nozzle with the openings upon the sides, such as the Chamberlain tube (Fig. 767), is sufficient.

In other cases it is necessary to employ some form of return-flow nozzle. The Fritsch-Bozeman nozzle (Fig. 768) is the safest of these. It consists of an outer tube fenestrated near the tip, with a second open-

ing upon the under surface of the instrument near its lower end for the return flow. Inside this outer tube is a smaller inflow tube. This instrument requires some dilatation of the cervix, however, before it can be introduced and where this is lacking a smaller instrument, such

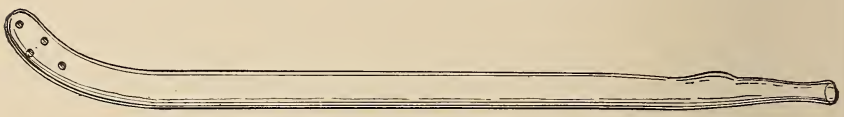


FIG. 767.—Glass intrauterine douche nozzle.

as Talley's intrauterine catheter (Fig. 769), may be employed. This latter consists of a curved metal catheter with two heavy wires on its under surface, which may be expanded or closed by turning a small thumb-screw. The catheter is introduced into the uterus with the wires lying close to the catheter and, when in the uterus, the wires are

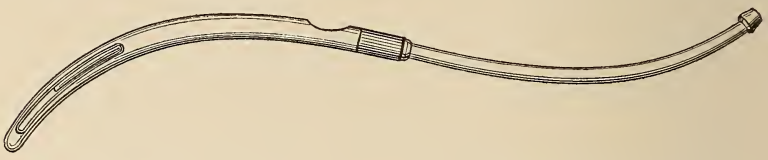


FIG. 768.—Fritsch-Bozeman return-flow uterine douche nozzle. (Bandler.)

expanded, thereby dilating the cervix sufficiently to permit a return of the injected solution.

Instruments.—In addition to the above apparatus a vaginal speculum, a sponge holder, and a pair of bullet forceps are required (Fig. 770).

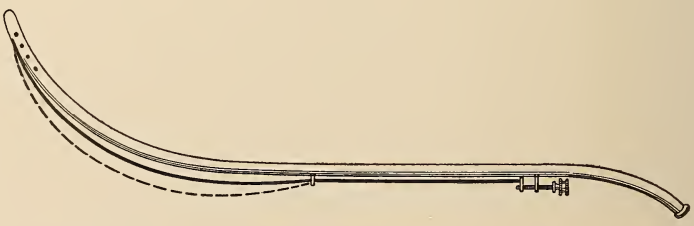


FIG. 769.—Return-flow dilating catheter. (Ashton.)

Asepsis.—The apparatus and instruments should be sterilized by boiling and the thermometer by immersion in a 1 to 500 bichlorid of mercury solution followed by rinsing in sterile water. The external genitals are first washed with soap and water and then with a 1 to 2000

bichlorid of mercury solution. The vagina is cleansed by means of a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury douche, followed by sterile water. The operator's hands are sterilized in the usual way.

Solutions Used.—Plain sterile water, normal salt solution—salt ℥i (3.9 gm.) to the pint (473.11 cc.) of water, 1 to 10000 to 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury, 50 per cent. alcohol, 0.5 per cent. solution of lysol, 0.5 per cent. solution of creolin, silver nitrate 1 to 1000, etc., etc., are among the solutions employed.

Temperature.—Ordinarily the temperature of the solution is about 105° F. Where the stimulating and constricting effect of heat is desired the temperature of the solution should be 115° to 120° F.

Quantity.—About 1 quart (1 liter) of solution is used at a time.

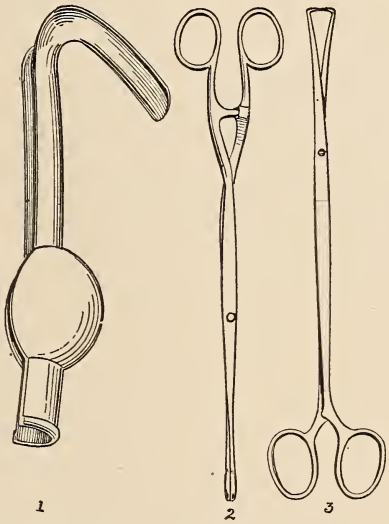


Fig. 770.—Instruments for intrauterine douching.
1, Garrigues' weighted speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenaculum.

Rapidity of Flow.—The fluid should not be allowed to enter the uterus more rapidly than it can escape, otherwise there is danger of its being forced into the tubes. Therefore, the reservoir should not be elevated more than 2 feet (60 cm.).

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal position.

Technic.—If the cervix is well dilated so that the entrance of the douche nozzle is not interfered with, the latter may be inserted by touch alone, as follows: One or two fingers of the left hand are passed into the vagina and the external os is thus located. The douche nozzle, with the solution flowing so as to avoid injecting any air, is then inserted into the uterus by the right hand, being guided through the

cervix by the fingers of the left hand (Fig. 771). The nozzle is then gently passed to the fundus of the uterus and the cavity is thoroughly irrigated. The return flow must be carefully watched to see that it

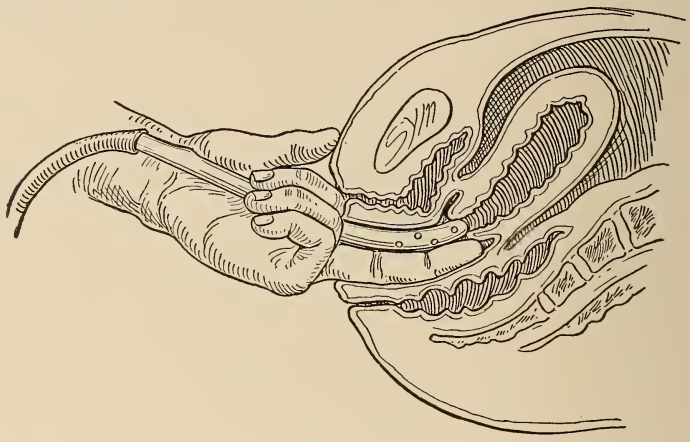


FIG. 771.—Inserting the douche nozzle when the cervix is well dilated.

is not obstructed. It is well to place the left hand externally over the fundus uteri in puerperal cases to prevent any possible overdistention of the uterus and opening up of the sinuses (Fig. 772).

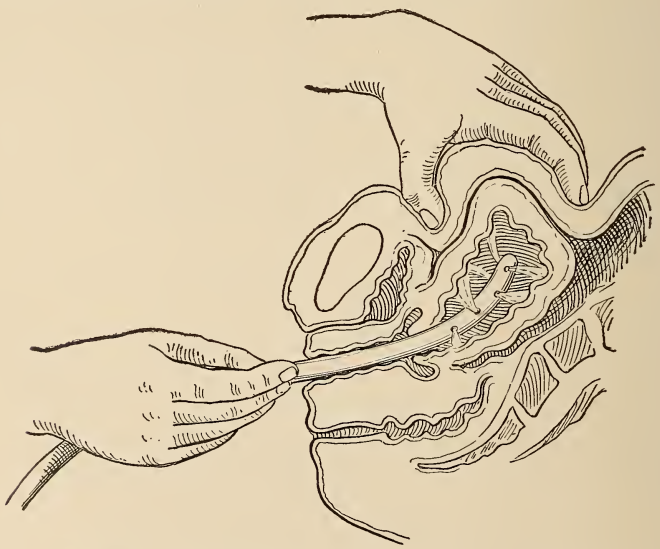


FIG. 772.—Method of giving an intrauterine douche in a postpartum case.

To introduce the douche nozzle by sight, the posterior vaginal wall is retracted by means of a speculum, and, if the cervix is not readily accessible, it is drawn down into the vagina by means of bullet forceps

caught in its anterior lip. The cervix is then wiped off by means of a swab on a sponge holder wet with a 1 to 2000 bichlorid of mercury solution, and a return-flow nozzle is inserted by direct sight, taking care to have the solution first flowing (Fig. 773). In inserting the nozzle extreme gentleness should be used to avoid injuring the tissues or possibly perforating the uterus. The latter accident has happened frequently enough to warrant this caution.

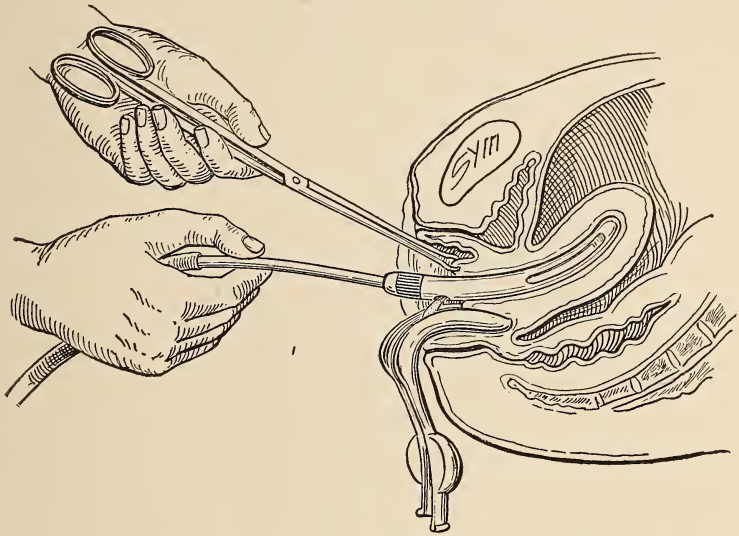


FIG. 773.—Shows the method of giving an intrauterine douche with a return-flow nozzle.

INTRAUTERINE APPLICATIONS.

The application of drugs with an astringent or caustic action to the mucous membrane of the uterus is employed in the treatment of endometritis in conjunction with curettage or alone. The best results are obtained, however, when intrauterine applications are used after a preliminary curettage.

The indiscriminate employment of intrauterine applications should be condemned, as they often do more harm than good. They should only be employed in cases where thorough asepsis can be obtained, and then only with the cervix sufficiently dilated to allow thorough subsequent drainage. The procedure, therefore, is one that rises to the dignity of an operation and should never be attempted as a part of the office treatment.

The position and size of the uterus and the condition of the other pelvic organs must be determined by bimanual examination beforehand.

In the presence of adnexal involvement or other complications intrauterine applications are contraindicated.

Instruments.—There should be provided a vaginal speculum, sponge holders, bullet forceps, and two uterine applicators (Fig. 774).

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The external genitals are washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution. The vagina is douched with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution followed by sterile water The operator's hands are likewise sterilized.

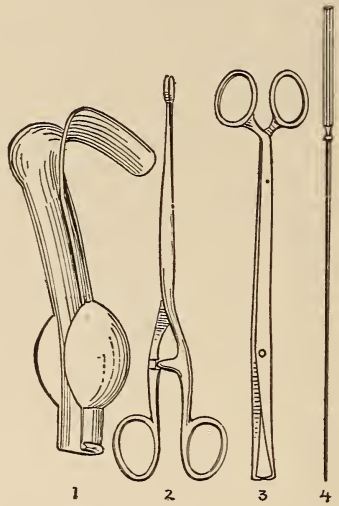


FIG. 774.—Instruments for making intrauterine applications.
1, Garrigues' weighted speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenaculum; 4, applicator.

Solutions Used.—Sulphate of zinc 5 to 10 per cent., chlorid of zinc 5 to 10 per cent., silver nitrate 5 to 10 per cent., perchlorid of iron 5 per cent., ichthyol 5 to 10 per cent., tincture of iodin 50 per cent., Churchill's solution of iodin, pure carbolic acid, etc., etc., may be employed.

Position of Patient.—The patient is placed in the dorsal position.

Technic.—The vaginal speculum is inserted and the cervix is drawn down into view by means of bullet forceps which seize the anterior lip. Any secretion or collection of mucus is then wiped away from the external os by means of a swab soaked in a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution, and the cervix is dilated if necessary (see page 746). A small pledget of dry cotton is then securely wound round an applicator, taking care that the tip of the instrument is well covered. The swab thus fashioned is to be of such size that it will readily pass the cervix. The applicator is curved to the shape of the canal and is passed into

the uterus for the purpose of removing any secretions and thus allow the solution to come in contact with all portions of the mucous membrane. A second applicator, similarly wrapped with cotton, is dipped in the solution. Any excess of fluid is squeezed from the cotton and

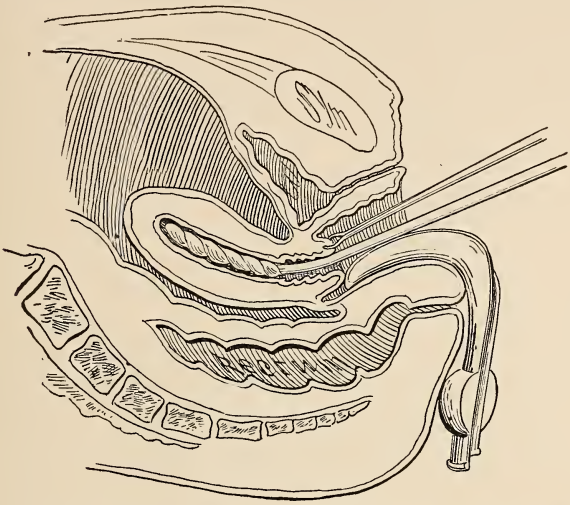


FIG. 775.—Shows the method of making an intrauterine application.

the application is then made to the interior of the uterus, carrying the cotton-tipped applicator well up to the fundus and moving the instrument about in the cavity (Fig. 775). A vaginal tampon is finally inserted, which is removed in twenty-four hours. The patient should remain quiet for a day or two, and if a strong caustic has been employed she should be warned that at first there will be an increased discharge.

TAMPONING THE UTERUS.

Tamponage of the uterus may be required to control severe uterine hemorrhage, to secure dilatation of the cervix for the expulsion of the uterine contents or in preparation for intrauterine manipulations, and to aid in the separation of retained products of conception. The technic of tamponing the uterus for the control of hemorrhage is something with which every physician should be familiar, as occasions often arise when the operation is demanded without delay as a life-saving measure; at the same time it should be regarded as a surgical procedure and one that should always be performed under thorough aseptic precautions. The position and size of the uterus should be ascertained by bimanual examination beforehand, otherwise the uterus may be injured in attempting to insert the packing.

Instruments.—A Simon or a Garrigues speculum, sponge holders, two bullet forceps, a pair of dressing forceps, and a cannula and packer are required (Fig. 776). In the majority of cases a pair of curved dressing forceps may be employed for inserting the packing, but, where the cervix is not well dilated, a special packer, such as is shown in

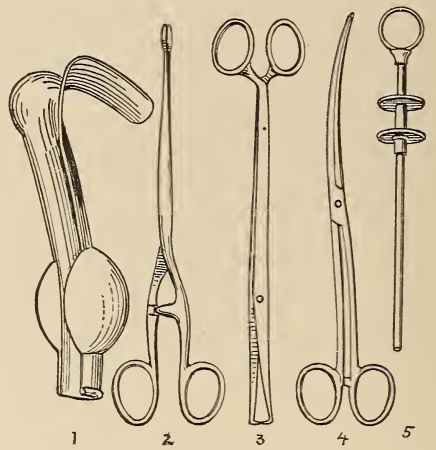


FIG. 776.—Instruments for tamponing the uterus.
1, Garrigues' speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenaculum; 4, uterine dressing forceps; 5, uterine packer.

Fig. 777, by means of which the packing is pumped into the uterus through the cannula, is more convenient.

Packing Material.—The most satisfactory material to pack with is sterilized gauze. This should be folded into strips 2 inches (5 cm.) wide for use when the cervix is well dilated and into strips 1/2 inch (1.2 cm.) wide for an incompletely dilated cervix. Care should be

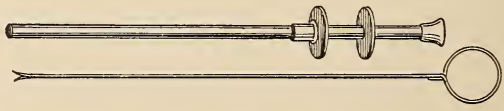


FIG. 777.—Showing the cannula and plonger of the uterine packer separated.

taken to see that the strips are so folded that no frayed edges are exposed. The gauze is best kept in long strips packed in sterile glass tubes.

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The patient's external genitals are washed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution and the

vagina is first cleansed with soap and water and then douched with a 1 to 5000 solution of bichlorid of mercury.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the lithotomy position.

Preparations of Patient.—The patient's bladder and bowels should be empty.

Technic.—Any clots are first wiped out of the vagina. The cervix is exposed by means of the speculum and the anterior and posterior

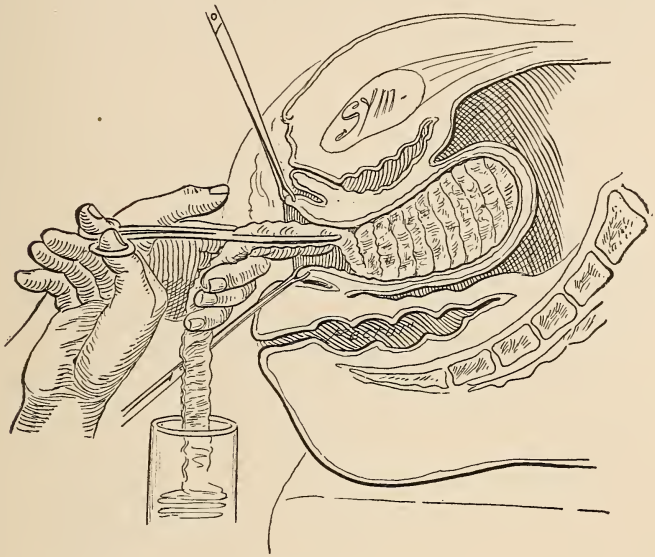


Fig. 778.—Method of tamponing the uterus with a long strip of gauze inserted by means of dressing forceps.

lips are seized in bullet forceps which are given to an assistant to hold. A strip of gauze is then seized in dressing forceps in such a way that the gauze falls over the end of the forceps so as to avoid inflicting any injury upon the tissues and is carried to the fundus. Successive sections of the gauze are inserted in the same manner until the cavity is filled (Fig. 778). Whenever possible, a *single strip of gauze* should be employed. While inserting the gauze the operator's free hand should be kept upon the abdomen in order to control the uterus, and care should be taken that the gauze does not come in contact with anything that is not sterile. The end or ends of the gauze, if more than one strip is used, should be left projecting into the vagina, so that it may be easily found, when the gauze is to be removed, which should be within twenty-four hours of its insertion.

In cases of severe hemorrhage the vagina also should be packed

(see page 719), taking care, however, to tie the vaginal strip to that within the uterus or else to bring the ends of both vaginal and uterine strips to the vaginal outlet. Upon removal of the gauze a vaginal douche should be given.

In tamponing the uterus by means of the special packer shown in Fig. 777, the cervix is exposed as before and is drawn down by means of bullet forceps. The cannula is then inserted into the uterus and a narrow strip of gauze is caught on the sharpened end of the piston and is carried into the uterus by a pumping motion of the piston (Fig. 779).

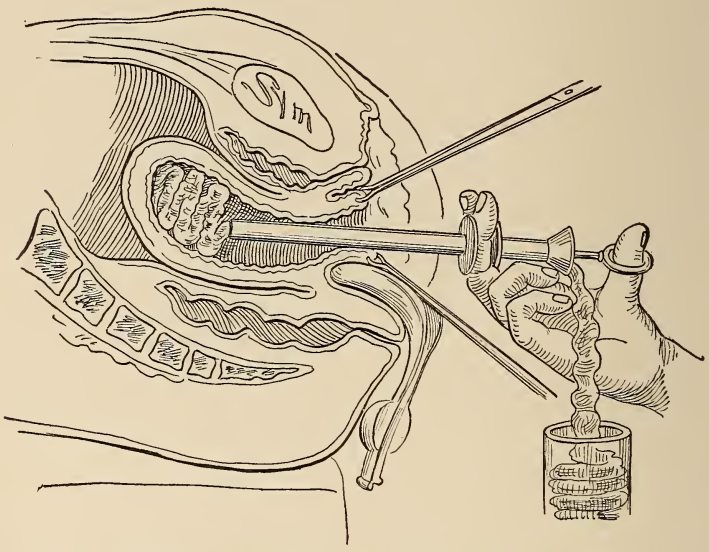


Fig. 779.—Method of using the uterine packer.

BIER'S HYPEREMIC TREATMENT IN GYNECOLOGY.

Passive hyperemia by means of special forms of suction cups applied to the cervix uteri has been employed with good results in cases of puerperal and other forms of infections of the cervix and uterus, in ulcerations of the cervix, in chronic metritis, and in amenorrhea. The use of cups is contraindicated, however, if the adnexa are inflamed.

In dysmenorrhea there have been numerous favorable reports from the application of large suction cups to the breast once or twice a day for periods of fifteen to thirty minutes, beginning a few days before the date of expected menstruation and continuing the treatments till the end. Pelvic exudates have also been treated with success by means of hot-air boxes in which the pelvis and hips rest.

The apparatus for obtaining active and passive hyperemia, as well as the method of its use, have been previously described in Chapter VII.

PELVIC MASSAGE.

Pelvic massage after the method of Brandt has been employed for the purpose of hastening the absorption of pelvic exudates through stimulation of the circulation and lymph currents, to stretch or separate old adhesions, to stimulate contractions in the uterus, and to strengthen and tone up weakened or thickened pelvic ligaments. In certain selected cases this method of treatment has value. *Pelvic massage*

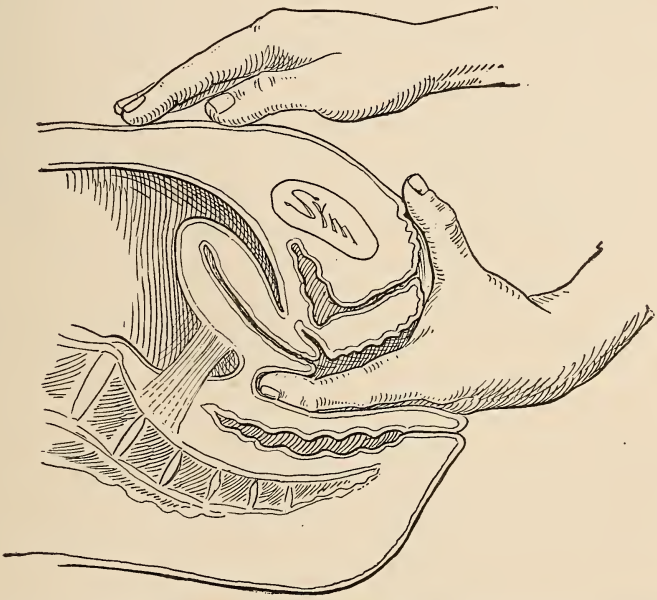


FIG. 780.—Showing the position of the hands in commencing pelvic massage.

must never be employed, however, *in the presence of acute inflammation or with pus collections in the tubes or pelvis*, so that the diagnosis must be carefully made in every case before it can be safely attempted, and then it should only be performed by the physician himself. In individuals with erotic tendencies it should be avoided.

Duration of Treatments.—The massage is performed for about ten minutes at a sitting.

Frequency.—Treatments are given daily.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal posture.

Preparations.—The bladder and bowels should be emptied beforehand and the clothing should be loosened from the abdomen.

Technic.—Under all aseptic precautions two fingers of the left hand are introduced into the vagina and are carried up to the part to be massaged. Then, by means of the right hand placed on the abdomen, at first gentle circular movements and then deep pressure manipulations are made over the diseased part which at the same time is raised and fixed within reach of the external hand by the internal fingers. The manipulations should be begun each time over the periphery of the diseased part and should always be made with the greatest care and with the absence of any approach to roughness.

When employed for the purpose of gradually stretching adhesions or contracted ligaments, gentle intermittent traction is applied to the uterus through the internal and external hands in a direction opposite to the point of the fixation (Fig. 780). By thus gradually stretching the adhesions and through the stimulating effect of the manipulations the fibrous tissue is gradually absorbed and the muscular and elastic tissues become regenerated. Such manipulations are especially useful when used in conjunction with hot douches and tampons in gradually replacing a uterus bound down with adhesions.

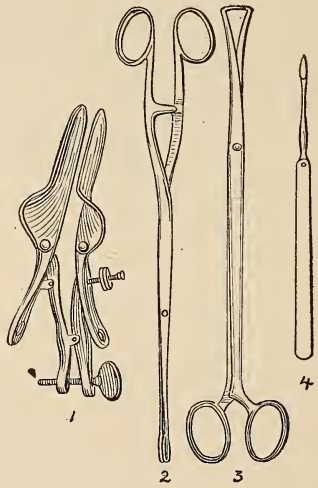


Fig. 781.—Instruments for scarification of the cervix.
1, Bivalve speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenaculum; 4, narrow-bladed bistoury.

SCARIFICATION OF THE CERVIX.

The withdrawal of blood from the cervix is a valuable therapeutic measure in cases of chronic congestion of the uterus and pelvic organs. It is also employed with good results for the relief of the pain and colic of delayed menstruation due to pelvic congestion.

Instruments.—A vaginal speculum, sponge holders, bullet forceps, and a narrow-bladed bistoury are required (Fig. 781).

Asepsis.—All aseptic precautions should be observed. The instruments are to be boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution. The external genitals are cleansed with soap and water, followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution, and the vagina is douched.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the dorsal posture.

Technic.—The cervix is exposed by the speculum and, after being mopped off by means of a wipe

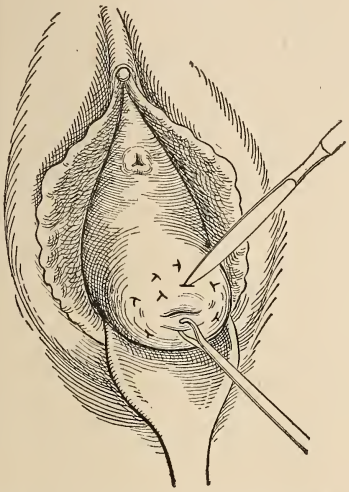


FIG. 782.—Method of scarifying the cervix by punctures. (Ashton.)

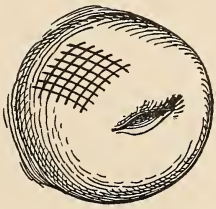


FIG. 783.—Scarification of the cervix, showing the method of making the superficial incisions. (Ashton.)

moistened in a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution, is seized by the bullet forceps and is drawn well down toward the vaginal outlet. Numerous punctures are then made by means of the point of the bistoury to the depth of 1/4 to 1/2 inch (6.3 to 12.7 mm.) around the circumference of the cervix (Fig. 782), or, instead of punctures, cross cuts may be employed (Fig. 783). In this way from 1/2 ounce (15 c.c.) to 2 ounces (60 c.c.) of blood may be withdrawn. A tampon of ichthyol and glycerin or tannin and glycerin is then inserted into the upper portion of the vagina, to be removed within twelve hours.

PESSARY THERAPY.

Pessaries are employed for the purpose of maintaining a retrodisplaced or prolapsed uterus in place and to support a cystocele. In the case of a prolapse of the uterus or a cystocele a pessary is only of value as a palliative measure where operative relief is refused or is undesirable on account of the age or condition of the patient. In a certain proportion of retrodisplacements, however, a properly fitted

pessary will in time produce a cure, the most favorable cases being those in which the displacement is only of short duration as, for example, after confinement. The only cases of displacement in which pessary therapy is suitable are those where the pelvic floor has sufficient tonicity to give support to the pessary and where the displacement is not complicated by pelvic lesions. Their use is contraindicated in the presence of considerable enlargement or a prolapse of the ovary, hydrosalpinx, pyosalpinx, or new growths, and where the uterus is bound down by adhesions. Some cases of adhesions, however, under appropriate treatment by medicated tampons, hot douching, etc., may be so stretched or even be made to disappear that later a pessary may be satisfactorily employed.

Pessaries are not designed as a means of replacing a uterus, but simply to hold the organ suspended in proper position after it has been replaced. This it does by distending the vaginal walls, and not through any force exerted by the instrument upon the uterus itself. Every pessary should be fitted to the individual case, and it is here that the experience of the physician counts for much. When properly fitted, *the pessary should never cause any pain or even make the patient conscious of its presence*, and it may be worn for years, with certain precautions as to cleanliness, to be mentioned later, without harm. On the other hand, an ill fitting pessary or one employed in a case not suitable for such treatment is distinctly harmful. It should, therefore, always be impressed upon the patient that if the least pain or an undue amount of leucorrhea results from the insertion of the pessary, she should report to the physician immediately, or else remove the pessary herself.

Pessaries.—Pessaries are made of hard rubber in a great variety of shapes. For retrodisplacements the most commonly employed is the Hodge-Smith (Fig. 784). If, however, the pelvic floor is relaxed, a Hodge pessary (Fig. 785) is preferable, as its wide lower bar renders it less liable to slip out. These act as levers in the vagina in such a way that the force is exerted upon the posterior cul-de-sac and the uterosacral ligaments, so that the cervix is pulled backward and the uterus is thus tipped forward.

Ring pessaries (Fig. 786) are also employed in retrodisplacements where there is not sufficient support for the ordinary pessary. They act by so distending the vagina in all directions that the uterus is supported by the lower vaginal structures. The ring should be smooth and fairly thick, at least 1/4 inch (6 mm.), so as to avoid any danger of its eroding through the vaginal walls. The

ring pessary is also employed for retaining a prolapsed uterus in place; but in many cases of prolapse, the perineum is so relaxed that the pessary immediately slips out, and some sort of pessary held in

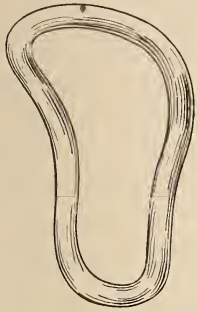


Fig. 784.—Hodge-Smith pessary.

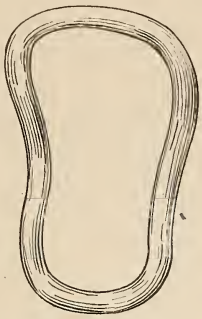


Fig. 785.—Hodge pessary.

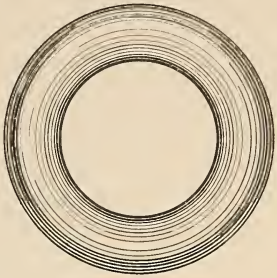


Fig. 786.—Ring pessary

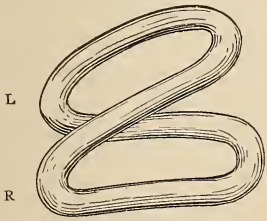


Fig. 787.—Gehrung's pessary.

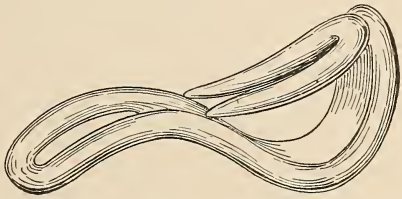


Fig. 788.—Skene's pessary. (Shown here upside down.)

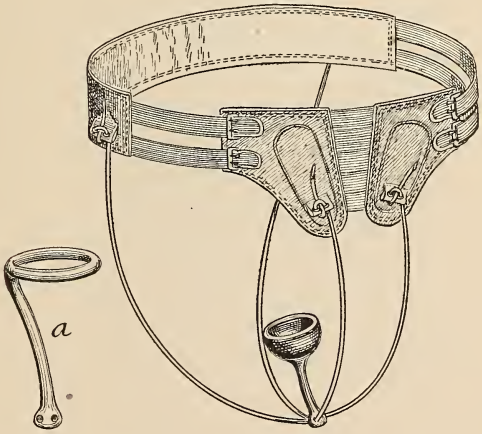


Fig. 789.—Cup or ring (*a*) pessary with external support. (Ashton.)

place by an abdominal support, such as is shown in Fig. 789, will be necessary.

For supporting a cystocele Gehrung's anteversion pessary (Fig. 787) or Skene's pessary (Fig. 788) is often used with success.

As previously stated the pessary should be fitted to each individual case. The shape of the pessary may be readily changed by first coating the instrument with oil or vaselin and then softening it by the heat of an alcohol lamp. When it has been moulded to the desired shape it is hardened again by immersion in cold water. The tendency is to employ too large a pessary, which is dangerous, as it may exert undue pressure upon the vaginal wall and produce excoriations, or in time even ulcerate through. On the other hand, if the pessary is too small, it will not remain in place. The safest plan is to measure the vagina in each case and shape the pessary accordingly. The depth of the vagina is determined by carrying two fingers as high as possible into the posterior cul-de-sac and measuring the distance from the inferior border of the symphysis, while the width is estimated by noting the distance to which the two fingers in the vagina may be separated. About 1/2 inch (1 cm.) should be deducted from the former measurement for the correct length of the pessary.

Asepsis.—A pessary should never be taken from one patient and inserted in another without thorough sterilization. The ring pessary may be sterilized by boiling, but the others, if so treated, lose their

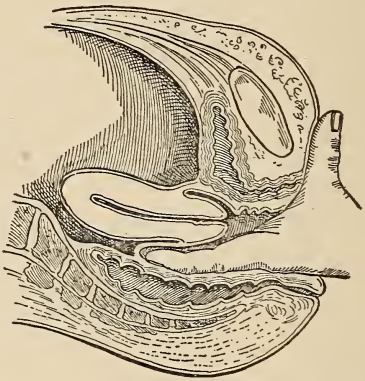


FIG. 790.—First step in replacing a retroverted uterus. (Ashton.)

shape; prolonged immersion in some antiseptic solution, such as 1 to 500 bichlorid of mercury, should be employed instead.

Position of Patient.—For inserting the pessary the patient is ordinarily placed in the dorsal posture, though in some cases the knee-chest position may be used to better advantage.

Preparations of Patient.—The bladder and bowels should be empty, and the clothing well loosened.

Technic.—1. *Replacement of the Retroverted Uterus.*—There are two methods of replacement: (1) By bimanual manipulation, and

(2) with the patient in the knee-chest posture. The former method is usually effective if the abdominal walls are not thick and rigid and the vagina is sufficiently roomy. It is performed as follows: Two

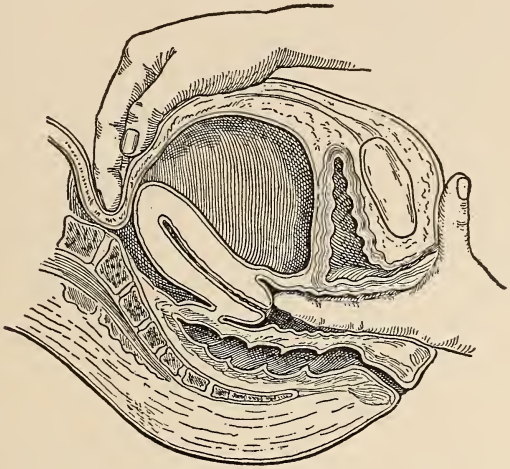


FIG. 791.—Second step in replacing a retroverted uterus. (Ashton.)

fingers of the left hand are introduced into the vagina and are carried up into the posterior cul-de-sac where they exert pressure in an upward and forward direction upon the body of the uterus (Fig. 790). As

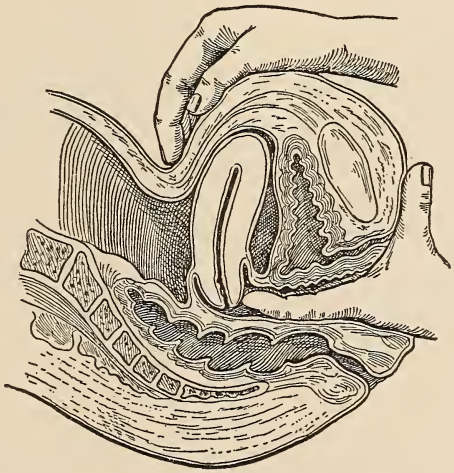


FIG. 792.—Third step in replacing a retroverted uterus. (Ashton.)

the uterus is thus elevated, the right hand is placed upon the abdomen, and an attempt is made to hook the fingers behind the fundus (Fig. 791). The fundus is then pulled forward by the fingers of the external

hand while the internal fingers are shifted to the anterior fornix, where they make backward pressure upon the cervix and the lower segment of the uterus (Fig. 792). Sometimes, however, it is not possible to

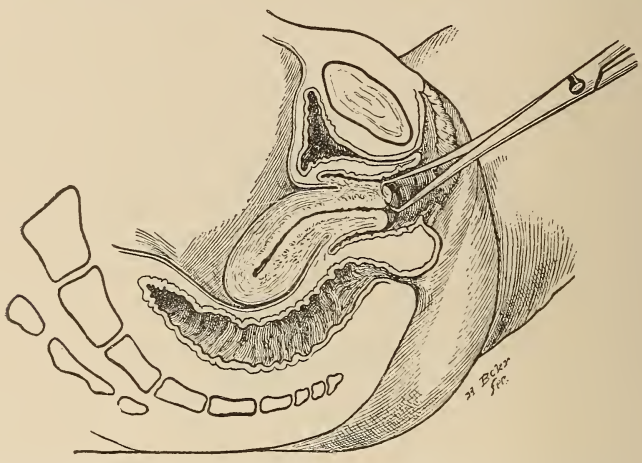


Fig. 793.—Second method of replacing a retroverted uterus. First step. (Kelly and Noble.)

raise the fundus past the promontory by this method. In such a case the anterior lip of the cervix should be grasped in bullet forceps, and the whole uterus is then pulled down toward the vaginal outlet (Fig.

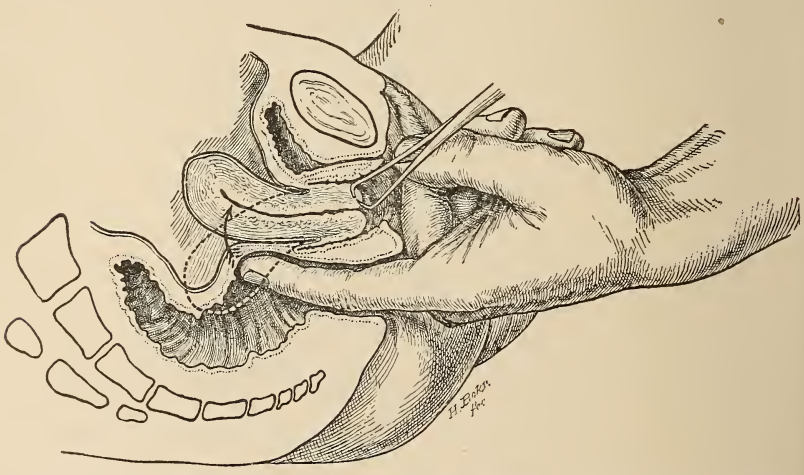


Fig. 794.—Second method of replacing a retroverted uterus. Second step. (Kelly and Noble.)

793). At the same time the index-finger of the left hand covered with a glove is inserted into the rectum and the fundus is elevated past the promontory (Fig. 794). The cervix is then pushed backward (Fig.

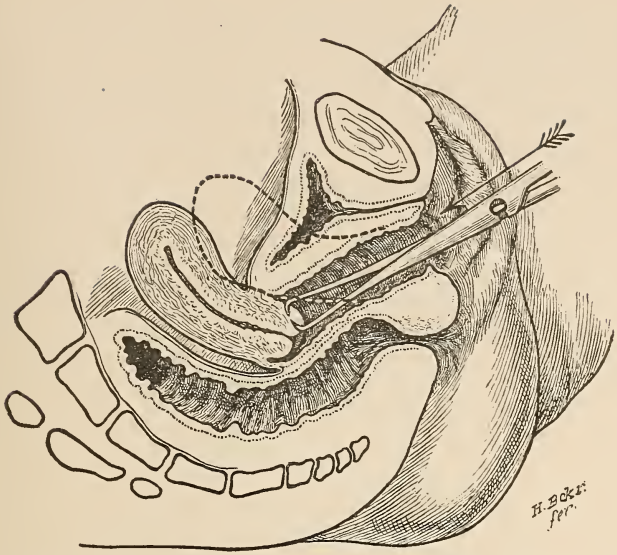


FIG. 795.—Second method of replacing a retroverted uterus. Third step. (Kelly and Noble.)

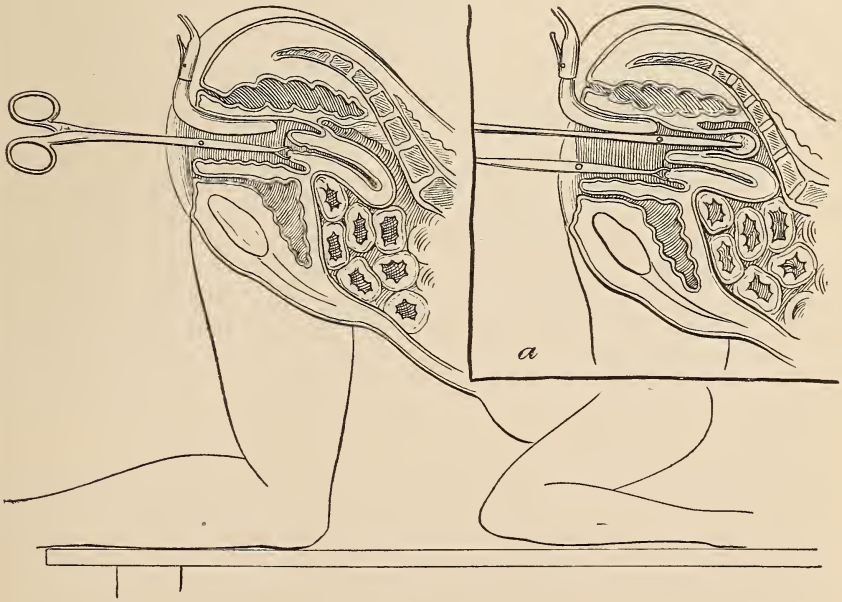


FIG. 796.—Replacement of a posterior uterine displacement in the knee-chest position. Showing the cervix drawn forward and the fundus swinging clear of the promontory. Illustration *a* shows the fundus pushed anteriorly by direct pressure. (Ashton.)

795), the bullet forceps are removed, and reposition is completed bimanually as described above.

If these manipulations fail, the patient should be placed in the knee-chest posture and the posterior vaginal wall retracted by means of a Sims or Simon speculum. This frequently results in the uterus falling forward through the effect of gravity. If it does not, the cervix should be grasped with bullet forceps and pulled downward, while the fundus is pushed forward by means of a pair of dressing forceps armed with a pledget of cotton carried up into the posterior cul-de-sac (Fig. 796). The patient is then slowly and carefully turned to the dorsal position, and a bimanual examination is made to determine if the the uterus is still in position before a pessary is inserted.

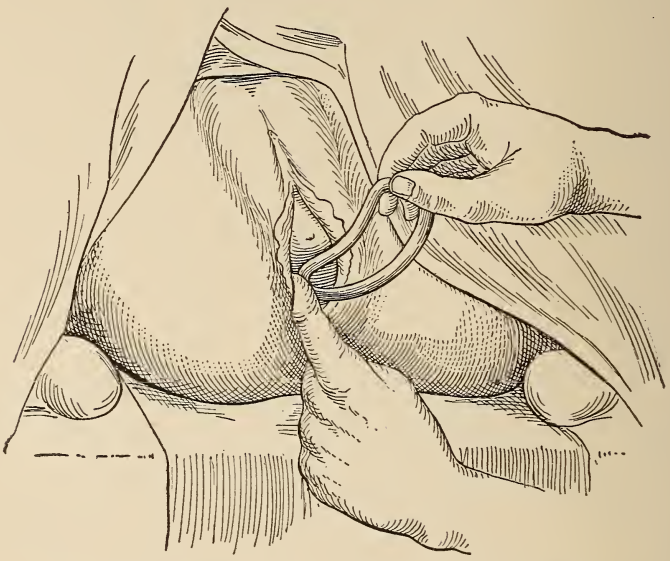


Fig. 797.—First step in introducing a retroversion pessary.

In all manipulations toward replacement of a uterus, the utmost gentleness should be employed. If the patient is very sensitive or the abdominal walls rigid, it is preferable to give a general anesthetic rather than employ force.

2. *Introduction of Pessaries.*—To insert the ordinary retroversion pessary, the left index-finger is carried into the vagina and the vaginal wall is retracted, while with the right hand, the pessary is introduced at first obliquely (Fig. 797), and then turned so that it lies transversely in the vagina (Fig. 798). The index-finger of the left hand is then shifted so that it lies under the anterior bar with its tip

resting upon the posterior bar (Fig. 799). The posterior bar is then pressed downward and backward until it lies behind the cervix (Fig. 800). After the pessary has been introduced, the patient is examined while in the erect position to see if it fits properly. A properly fitting

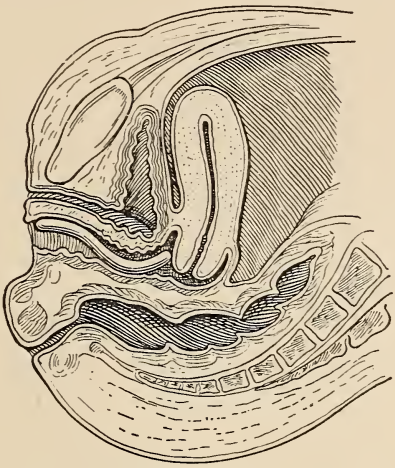
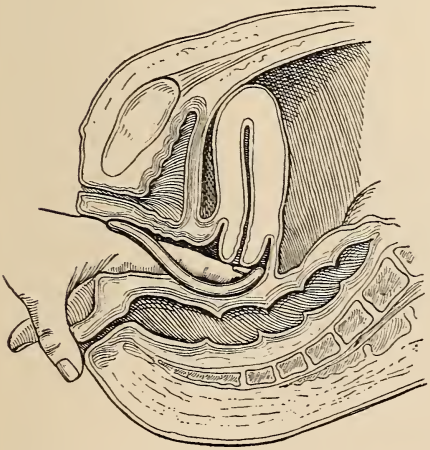


FIG. 798.—Showing the pessary in the vagina with the posterior bar in contact with the cervix. (Ashton.)



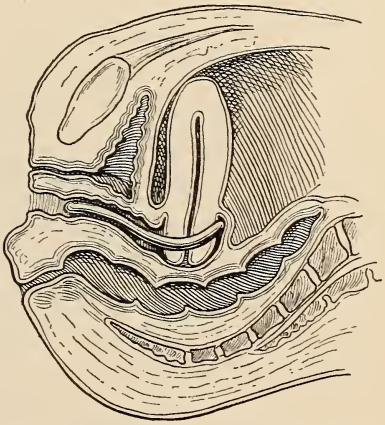


FIG. 799.—Second step in introducing a retroversion pessary, depressing the posterior bar and inserting it behind the cervix. (Ashton.)

FIG. 800.—Showing the retroversion pessary in place. (Ashton.)

pessary should hold the uterus in place and at the same time should not be so tight that the examining finger cannot be passed between the vaginal walls and the pessary on all sides.

The ring pessary is introduced in much the same way, that is, the left index-finger retracts the posterior vaginal wall while with the fingers of the right hand the pessary is introduced obliquely into the vagina (Fig. 801). It is then turned transversely and is manipulated by the

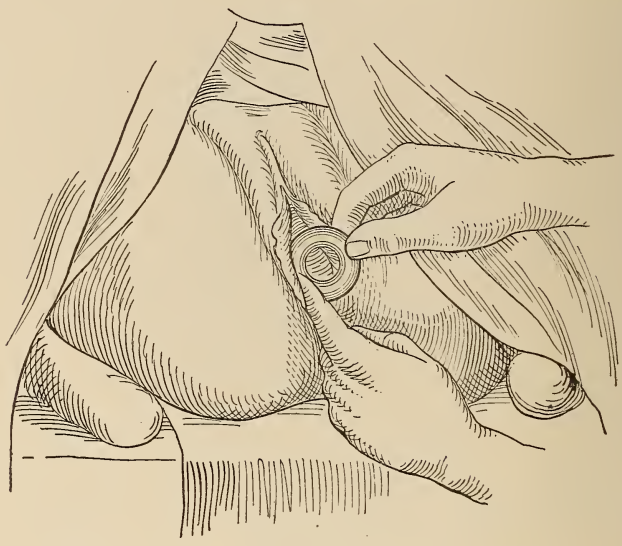


FIG. 801.—First step in introducing a ring pessary.

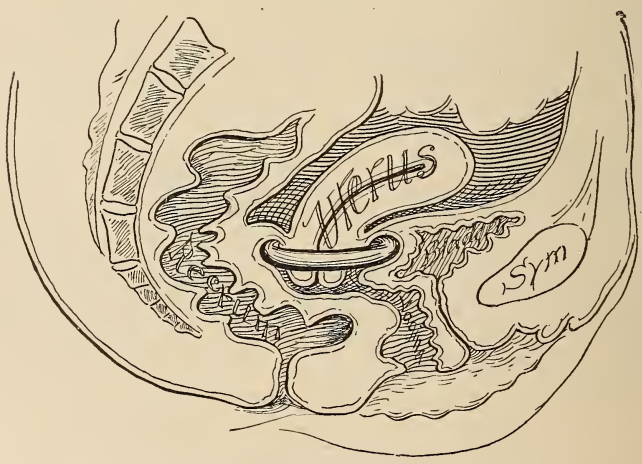


FIG. 802.—Shows the ring pessary in place.

internal fingers until it lies in proper position with its opening surrounding the cervix (Fig. 802).

Skene's cystocele pessary is introduced into the vagina in the same manner as the retroversion pessary, with the posterior bar lying behind

the cervix, and the broad anterior bar supporting the bladder (Fig. 803).

Gehrung's cystocele pessary is more difficult to introduce. The following method is employed: The pessary is placed upon a

Fig. 803.—Showing Skene's pessary in place. (Ashton.)

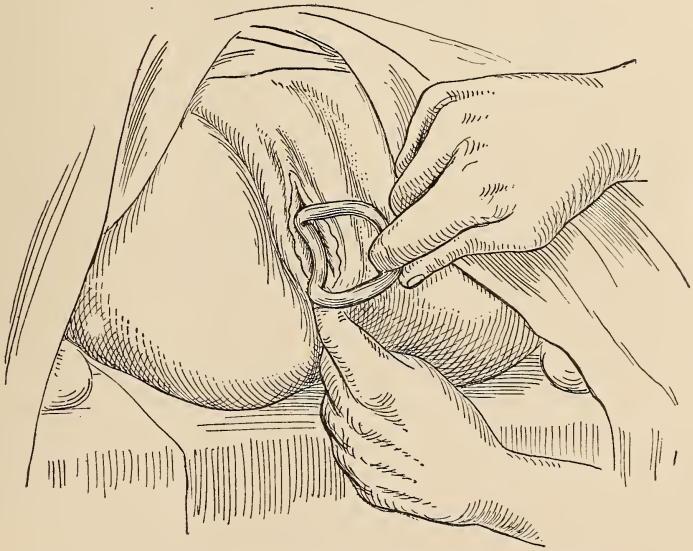


Fig. 804.—First step in introducing Gehrung's pessary.

table in such a way that it rests upon its inferior arch, with the two curves, right and left, facing toward the operator, who then grasps the curve L between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, and inserts curve R into the right side of the vagina (Fig. 804) and then

curve L into the left side. The pessary is then manipulated into such position, that the superior arch lies up in front of the uterus, the inferior arch under the pubic arch, and the two curves R and L on the posterior vaginal wall (Fig. 805).

After-care.—Within three or four days after introduction of the pessary, the vagina is inspected to determine whether there is any erosion from undue pressure of the pessary. The patient is then examined once every month or six weeks, at which time the pessary is removed and well cleansed before re-insertion and the vagina is examined for signs of ulceration, which, if present, necessitate the removal

Fig. 805.—Gehrung's pessary in position.

of the pessary and the substitution of medicated tampons until healing has been effected. Once a week and after each menstrual period the patient should take a warm boric acid or soapsuds douche for cleansing purposes, while, if there is irritation from the presence of the pessary, a daily douche should be administered. In cases where the displacement is accompanied by considerable uterine congestion and enlargement, a hot vaginal douche should be given night and morning (see page 715). In all cases the physician should impress upon the patient the necessity of reporting if at any time the pessary causes any pain or discomfort.

DILATATION OF THE CERVIX.

Dilatation of the cervix, while a small operation, is one of considerable importance, as it forms a part of many gynecological procedures. Thus it may be required as a preliminary to exploration of the interior of the uterus, intrauterine irrigations and applications, curettage, and to secure sufficient dilatation for the extraction of retained secundines

following an incomplete abortion. Dilatation of the cervix is also employed for the cure of dysmenorrhea and sterility dependent upon cervical stenosis. The operation should always be performed under all aseptic precautions and after the position of the uterus and the condition of the appendages have been first determined by bimanual examination. Pelvic peritonitis, pelvic abscess, pyosalpinx, etc., are contraindications to dilatation, unless the procedure is to be immediately followed by operative treatment of these conditions.

There are two methods of performing dilatation: (1) Gradual dilatation by means of sponge, laminaria, or tupelo tents, and (2) rapid dilatation. The former method, besides being painful, is no longer looked upon with favor on account of the dangers of infection and will not be described.

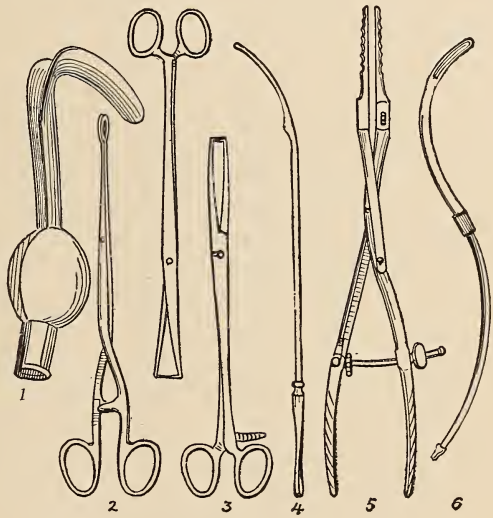


FIG. 806.—Instruments for dilating the cervix.
1, Garrigues' speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenaculum; 4, uterine sound; 5, Goodell dilators; 6, Fritsch-Bozeman return flow irrigator.

Instruments.—A self-retaining speculum, a sponge holder, two bullet forceps, a uterine sound, two pairs of Goodell's dilators (a small and a large size), and a Fritsch-Bozeman return flow irrigator are required (Fig. 806). Some operators prefer to employ graduated sound dilators, such as Hanks' or Hegar's (Fig. 807), in place of the glove stretcher form of dilator, as producing less laceration of the cervical tissue.

Asepsis.—The instruments are boiled in a 1 per cent. soda solution for five minutes and the operator's hands are thoroughly cleansed.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the lithotomy posture.

Anesthesia.—While the operation may be performed under local anesthesia by infiltrating the cervical tissue with a 0.2 per cent.

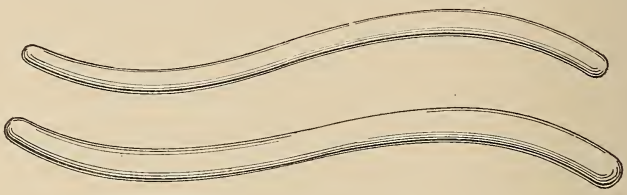


FIG. 807.—Hegar's graduated dilators. (Bandler.)

solution of cocain and inserting a pledget of cotton saturated with a 4 per cent. solution of cocain into the cervical canal, general anesthesia will be found preferable in the majority of cases.

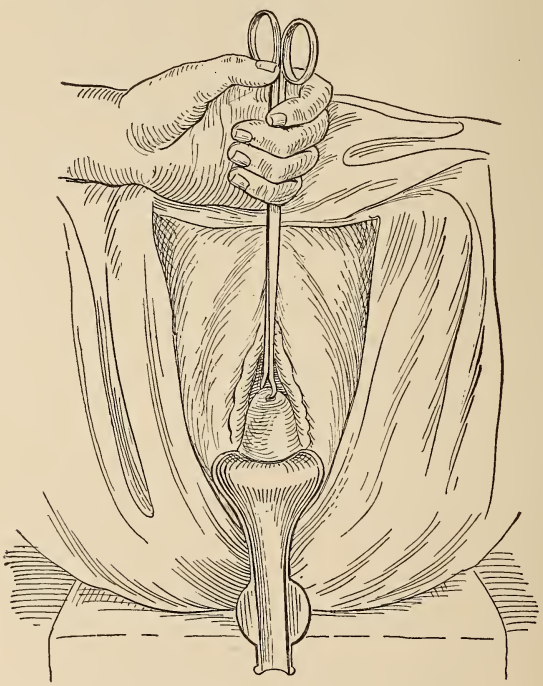


FIG. 808.—First step in dilatation of the cervix. The cervix exposed and drawn down by a tenaculum.

Preparations of Patient.—The bladder and bowels are to be empty. The hair is shaved or closely cut from the labia and the external genitals are washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000

bichlorid solution. The vagina is then washed with soap and water by the aid of a swab on a sponge holder and this is followed by a douche of 1 to 5000 bichlorid.

Technic.—The speculum is introduced into the vagina and the anterior cervical lip is seized by bullet forceps and is drawn toward the vaginal orifice (Fig. 808). The cervix is then swabbed with a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution. A sound is next introduced for the purpose of determining the direction of the uterine canal, and this is

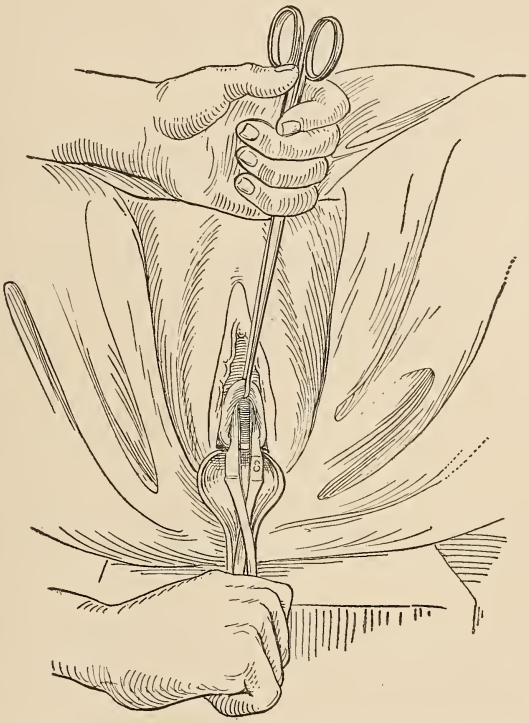


FIG. 809.—Second step in dilatation of the cervix. Shows the method of dilating by means of Goodell's dilators.

important in order to avoid perforating or otherwise injuring the uterus with the dilators in case of a retrodisplacement or a sharp anteflexion. The small size Goodell dilator is then inserted into the cervix, carefully manipulating it past any obstruction from the internal os, but above all *avoiding the use of any force.* With the instrument through the internal os the dilators are gradually expanded, first in one direction and then, after rotation of the instrument, in another, until a moderate amount of dilatation has been obtained, when the large size dilator may be substituted. The dilatation is thus continued, the operator

being guided as to the force he may exert by the amount of resistance offered by the cervix, until the cervix has been sufficiently stretched for the purposes of the operation.

At the completion of the operation the uterus is irrigated through a Fritsch-Bozeman double-flow tube. Following the operation the

Fig. 810.—Showing the method of dilating the cervix by means of the graduated dilators of Hegar.

patient should remain in bed three to four days during which time a daily vaginal douche of warm 4 per cent. boracic acid solution or sterile water is given.

Dilatation by means of the Hegar style of dilator is comparatively simple. The cervix is exposed and drawn down as above, and then, beginning with the small ones, successive larger sizes of the dilators

Fig. 811.—Intrauterine stem pessary. (Bandler.)

are inserted into the cervix, lubricating each sound with sterile vaselin before its introduction. In using the smaller sized sound great care must be observed against making a false passage in case any obstruction is offered by the internal os.

When dilatation is performed for sterility due to stenosis, some

operators follow the operation by introducing into the cervix a hard-rubber stem, such as is shown in Fig. 811, for the purpose of maintaining the dilatation. The stem is from 22 to 25 French in size and is provided with a groove upon its lateral wall for the escape of discharges. It has this objection, however, that it is liable to irritate the cervical lining.

CURETTAGE.

Curettage, or the scraping of the inner lining of the uterine cavity, may be performed for the purpose of removing diseased mucosa in chronic endometritis, for the purpose of obtaining tissue for subsequent microscopic examination in suspected cancer of the uterus, and as a preliminary to repair of the cervix and operations upon the uterine appendages. In puerperal cases the operation is indicated for the removal of pieces of decidua or placenta retained after labor or following incomplete abortions.

The operation is contraindicated in cancer of the uterus except to obtain tissue for examination and as a preliminary to a radical operation and likewise in pelvic peritonitis, pyosalpinx, pelvic cellulitis, ectopic pregnancy, etc., unless as a preliminary to a laparotomy. Curettage is dangerous in the presence of submucous fibroids, as sloughing of the growths may result through injury from the curet. In streptococcus infections of the uterus, the operation, if performed at all, should be done with caution, as new channels for infection are opened up by the curet and extension of the process to the deeper tissues is liable to follow.

A curettage should always be performed under the strictest asepsis and with care and gentleness, as a false passage may easily be made through the wall of the uterus with the curet or dilator; especially is this liable to happen in septic conditions and in puerperal cases where the uterine wall is soft. The position of the uterus and the condition of the adnexa should be ascertained beforehand by means of a bimanual examination.

Instruments.—A Simon or a Garrigues self-retaining speculum, sponge holders, two bullet forceps, a uterine sound, a pair of large and small Goodell dilators, Sims' curets, a Martin curet, a large blunt curet, placental forceps, uterine dressing forceps, and a Fritsch-Bozeman return-flow irrigator will be required (Fig. 812).

Asepsis.—All the instruments are boiled for five minutes in a 1 per cent. soda solution, and the operator's hands are sterilized as for any operation.

Position of Patient.—The patient should be in the lithotomy posture.

Anesthesia.—General anesthesia is necessary.

Preparations of Patient.—The bladder and bowels are to be empty. The hair is shaved or cut from the labia and the external genitals are washed with soap and water followed by a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution. The vagina is first thoroughly scrubbed with soap and water by means of a swab on a sponge holder and is then thoroughly douched with a 1 to 5000 bichlorid of mercury solution.

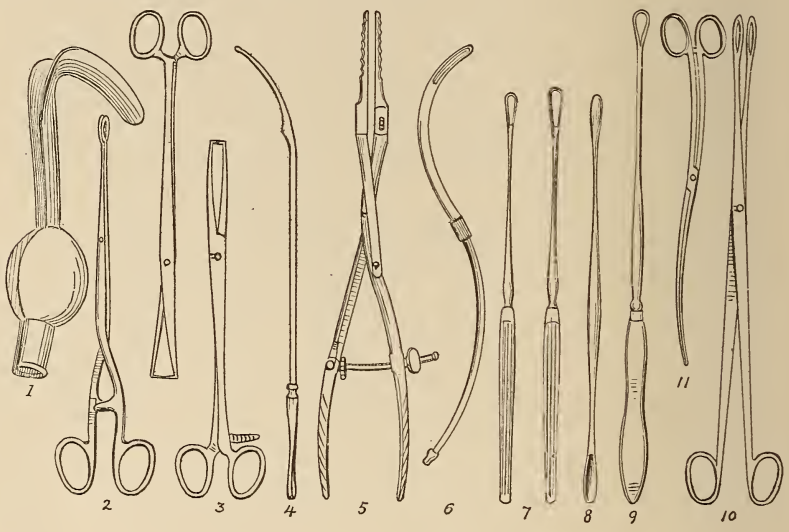


FIG. 812.—Instruments for curettage.

1, Garrigues' weighted speculum; 2, sponge holder; 3, tenacula; 4, uterine sound; 5, Goodell dilators; 6, Fritsch-Bozeman nozzle; 7, Sims' curets; 8, Martin's curet; 9, blunt curet; 10, placental forceps; 11, uterine dressing forceps.

Technic.—1. *Nonpuerperal Cases.*—The cervix is exposed by means of the speculum and the anterior or both the anterior and posterior lips are caught by means of bullet forceps and are drawn well down toward the vulva. The cervix is then wiped with a swab soaked in a 1 to 2000 bichlorid solution and, after first determining the direction of the canal, the cervix is dilated in the manner described on page 746. The entire uterus is then thoroughly scraped with a sharp curet of the largest size that will pass through the cervix. This should be done in a systematic manner—for example, beginning with the anterior wall, the curet is carried to the fundus and is then withdrawn along the front wall and out of the uterus in one sweep. Any adherent tissue is wiped off the curet and the instrument is

reinserted and withdrawn over another section of the anterior wall. The process is repeated until the entire anterior wall has been scraped, and then the two side walls and the posterior wall are similarly dealt

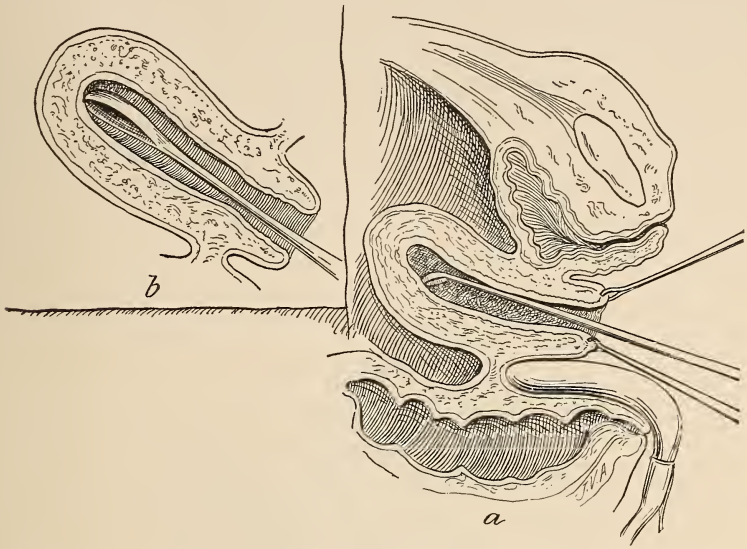


FIG. 813.—Dilatation and curettage of the uterus. Illustration *a* shows the endometrium being removed with Sims' curet; illustration *b* shows the mucous membrane on the fundus being removed with Martin's curet. (Ashton.)

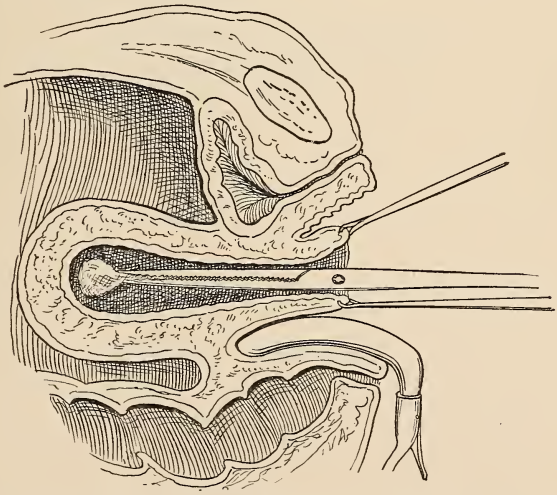


FIG. 814.—Shows the uterine cavity being swabbed out with pure carbolic acid. (Ashton.)

with. A Martin curet is then substituted for the Sims instrument and the fundus is well scraped. The cavity is then irrigated with sterile water or normal salt solution by means of the return-flow

catheter in order to remove any débris or loose shreds of tissue, and a light packing is inserted for a few moments to dry the cavity. The packing is then removed and the uterine cavity is swabbed with pure carbolic acid introduced by means of a cotton swab on dressing forceps (Fig. 814). In doing this care must be taken not to touch the vagina with the carbolic acid and to remove any excess of acid from the swab before inserting it in the cervix. The vagina is then cleansed, the bullet forceps are removed from the cervix, and a light vaginal tampon is placed in contact with the cervix. The vulva is finally covered with a gauze pad.

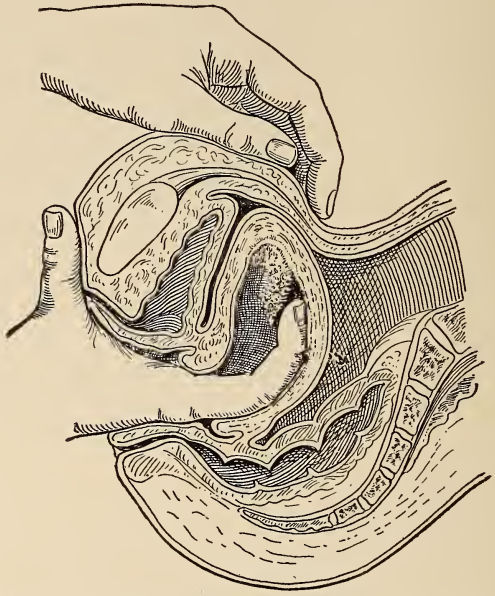


Fig. 815.—Digital curettage of the uterus. (Ashton.)

2. *Puerperal Cases.*—Unless the cervix is already dilated, it should be stretched sufficiently to admit one or, if possible, two fingers. The operator then inserts the index and middle fingers or, if this is not possible, the index-finger of the right hand into the uterus and, while counter-pressure is made over the fundus with the left hand, he thoroughly explores the cavity and separates any retained material by means of the internal fingers (Fig. 815). Large pieces of tissue thus loosened may be then removed by means of placental forceps. The cavity of the uterus is then irrigated with normal salt solution or with sterile water and is lightly scraped with a large dull curet. In doing this great care and gentleness are necessary to avoid perforating the uterus.

Sharp curets should never be employed in pueperal cases. After a final exploration with the finger the cavity is again irrigated and the operation is concluded by cleansing the vagina and covering the vulva with a sterile gauze pad secured in place by a *T*-bandage. Only in cases where the operation is accompanied by severe bleeding or where it is desired to introduce contraction in a flabby organ is it necessary to pack the uterus (see page 629). If this is done, the packing should be removed in twenty-four hours.

After-care.—The vagina should be douched daily with a 1 to 5000 warm bichlorid solution followed by sterile water or normal salt solution. In cases of curettage for simple endometritis the patient may be allowed out of bed within a week, in other cases the duration of the stay in bed will depend upon the condition of the patient.

INDEX

Abdomen, aspiration of, 265
  auscultation of, 691
  inspection of, 686
  mensuration of, 691
  palpation of, 687
  percussion of, 689
Absorption power of the stomach, Penzoldt and Faber's test of, 448
  test of the bladder, 609
Accessory sinuses, anatomy of, 276
    lavage of, 305
    probing, 289
    transillumination of, 292
    skiagraphy of, 294
Accidents during anesthesia and their treatment, 56
A. C. E. general anesthetic mixture, 49
Acid intoxication, 63
Acoin, 72
Active hyperemia, 194
Acupuncture, 159
  in muscular rheumatism, 160
  in neuritis, 161
Administration of antiserum in cerebrospinal meningitis, 253
  of antitetanic serum, 253
  of chloroform by the drop method, 37
    by the vapor method, 39
  of diphtheria antitoxin, 149
  of ether by the closed method, 32
    by the drop method, 30
    by the semiopen method, 32
    by the vapor method, 33
  of ethyl chlorid, 48
  of general anesthetics, 17
  of nitrous oxid gas, 42
    and ether, 46
    and oxygen, 44
Adrenalin chlorid as an aid to local anesthesia, 73
    and saline solution in shock, 128
Advantages and disadvantages of local anesthesia, 67
After-effects of general anesthetics, 62
  treatment of cases of general anesthesia, 64
Air-bag, Politzer's, 333
  hot, 194
  inflation of the colon with, 493, 517
    of the stomach with, 439
Albarran's cystoscope, 653
  experimental polyuria test, 673
Albuminous expectoration after aspiration of the chest, 262
Allis' ether inhaler, 27
Allport's ear syringe, 340
Alypin, 70
Anal canal, anatomy of, 475
    inspection of, 479
    palpation of, 480
Anastomosis, blood-vessel, 119, 124
Anatomy of the accessory sinuses, 276
  of the anal canal, 475
  of the bladder, 593
  of the ear, 317
  of the esophagus, 403
  of the ethmoid sinus, 277
  of the Eustachian tubes, 321
  of the female urethra, 530
  of the frontal sinus, 277
  of the kidneys, 642
  of the larynx, 353
  of the male urethra, 527
  of the maxillary sinus, 276
  of the nose, 273
  of the prostate, 530
  of the rectum, 474
  of the sphenoid sinus, 277
  of the stomach, 427
  of the trachea, 355
  of the ureters, 644
  of the uterus and appendages, 679
  of the vagina, 679
Anesthesia, arterial, 98
  chloroform, 34
  ether, 24

Anesthesia, ethyl chlorid, 46
general, 17
accidents during, 56
A. C. E. mixture for, 49
acid intoxication from, 63
after-effects of, 62
after-treatment following, 64
asphyxiation from, 57
Billroth's mixture for, 49
cardiac paralysis during, 60
C. E. mixture for, 49
delayed poisoning from, 63
mixtures for, 49
mortality from, 17
postoperative palsies following, 63
preparations of patient for, 18
renal complications of, 63
respiratory complications of, 63
paralysis during, 60
Schleich mixture for, 49
stages of, 22
vomiting from, 62
infiltration, 76
intubation, 50
local, 66
adrenalin chlorid as an aid to, 73
advantages and disadvantages of, 67
by endo- and perineural infiltration, 81
by freezing, 75
by infiltration, 76
by surface application of anesthetics, 75
conduction of an operation under, 73
ethyl chlorid in, 75
drugs used for, 71
in abdominal operations, 89
in hernia operations, 89
in operations on the bladder, 76
on the eyes, 75
on the face, 84
on the head, 83
on the larynx, 85
on the lips, 84
on the lower extremity, 92
jaw, 84
on the mouth, 85
on the neck, 85
on the nose, 76
on the penis, 91
on the rectum, 92
on the scalp, 83
on the scrotum, 91
on the thorax, 86
on the tongue, 85
Anesthesia, local, in operations on the upper extremity, 86
on the urethra, 76, 91
methods of producing, 70
preparations of patient for, 70
Schleich mixtures for, 72
suitable cases for, 68
lumbar, 99
nitrous oxid, 39
and ether, 44
and oxygen, 44
rectal, 53
regional, 71
scopolamin-morphin, 55
spinal, 99
subarachnoid, 99
terminal, 71
tracheal, 52
venous, 95
Anesthesin, 72
Anesthetic mixtures, 49
Anesthetics, general, administration of, 17
local, 71
Anesthetist's supplies, 22
Anesthol, 49
Ankle-joint, exploratory puncture of, 246
Anterior crural nerve, cocainization of, 92
rhinoscopy, 281
tibial nerve, cocainization of, 95
Antiserum, administration of, in cerebro-spinal meningitis, 253
Antitetanic serum, administration of, 253
Antitoxin, diphtheria, administration of, 149
syringes, 150
Anus, dilatation of, 482
inspection of, 479
local anesthesia in operations on, 92
palpation of, 480
Application of caustics to the bladder, 627
to the ear, 344
to the larynx, 377
to the nose, 301
to the vagina, 718
Arterial anesthesia, 98
infusion of salt solution, 137
Crile's method, 138
Dawbarn's method, 139
Artificial leech, 175
respiration, 58
sera for infusion, 129
Hare's formula for, 129
Hayem's formula for, 130
Locke's formula for, 130

Artificial sera, Ringer's formula for, 129
Szumann's formula for, 130
Ascites, aspiration of abdomen for, 265
Asphyxiation during general anesthesia, 57
Aspirating bulb, Boas', 443
syringe, 231
trocar, 255, 266
Aspiration of abdomen in ascites, 265
of bladder, 639
of pericardium, 263
of peritoneal cavity, 265
of pleura, 254
of stomach contents, 447
of tunica vaginalis, 270
Aspirator, bottle, for stomach contents, 443
Connell's heat vacuum, 257
Dieulafoy, 256
Potain, 255
syphonage, 258
Atomizer, Davidson, 299
DeVilbiss, 299
Whitall Tatum, 299
Aural stethoscope, 333
Speculum, Boucheron's, 324
electric lighted, 324
Gruber's, 324
Toynbee's, 324
Auriculotemporal nerve, cocainization of, 83
Auscultation of abdomen, 691
of esophagus, 405
of stomach, 436
Auto-irrigation of bladder, 626
-massage, 524
Automatic scarificator, 167
Autoscopy, 367

Bacteriological examination, collection of blood for, 222
collection of discharges and secretions for, 210
from an abscess cavity, 214
from the eyes, 215
from the nose and accessory sinuses, 214
from urethra, 215
from uterus, 216
from vagina, 216
Bandage, elastic, for passive hyperemia, 183
Bellocq's cannula, 314
Bennett's gas and ether inhaler, 45
Bermingham nasal douche, 295
Bicoudé catheter, 630
Bierhoff's cystoscope, 653
Bier's active hyperemia, 194
passive hyperemia, 177
in diseases of nose and accessory sinuses, 311
in gynecology, 732
venous anesthesia, 95
Billroth's esophageal sound, 421
general anesthetic mixture, 49
Bimanual palpation of bladder, 603
of pelvic organs, 696
Binnafont method of catheterizing the Eustachian tubes, 338
Bivalve rectal speculum, 703
vaginal speculum, 483
Bladder, anatomy of, 593
application of caustics to, 627
aspiration of, 639
auto-irrigation of, 624
bimanual palpation of, 603
capacity of, 593
catheterization of, 628, 635
continuous catheterization of, 636
cystoscopic examination of, 610, 615
inspection of, 601
instillations for, 626
irrigation of, 620
palpation of, 602
percussion of, 601
sound, Thompson's, 604
sounding, 604
Blake's ear syringe, 340
Bleeding, 161
Blocking nerves, 83
Blood, collection of, for bacteriological examination, 220
for microscopical examination, 217
cryoscopy of, 672
freezing-point of, 673
pressure, determination of, 106
diastolic, 107
normal, 106
systolic, 106
variations of, in disease, 111
in health, 107
significance of, in urine, 599
in vomitus, 429
smears, method of making, 218
transfusion of, 114
Blood-vessel anastomosis, 119, 124
Boas' aspirating bulb, 443

Boas' rectal electrode, 525
tube for esophageal lavage, 416
Boas-Ewald test breakfast, 440
Bodenhamer's double current rectal irrigator, 503
Bodine's formula for cocain and salt solution, 72
Bottle aspirator for extracting stomach contents, 443
Boucheron's ear speculum, 324
Bougies, esophageal, 406, 420
Eustachian, 347
filiform, 539, 582
rectal, 490, 520
urethral, 539, 581
Wales', 490, 520
Bougies à boule, esophageal, 406
rectal, 491
urethral, 547
Boxes, hot-air, 195
Brachial plexus, cocainization of, 86
Braun's vapor inhaler, 36
Brenner's cystoscope, 652
Brewer's method of transfusion, 122
transfusion tubes, 122
Bronchoscope, Jackson's, 368
Killian's 368
Bronchoscopy, lower, 373
upper, 372
Brown's cystoscope, 652, 653
Buerger's cystoscope, 653
transfusion cannula, 117

Calculi, renal, X-ray in detection of, 674
ureteral, X-ray in detection of, 674
vesical, X-ray in detection of, 620
Caliber of urethra, 529
Cannula, Bellocq's, 314
Buerger's transfusion, 117
Crile's transfusion, 117
Elsberg's transfusion, 123
Hahn's tracheal, 52
Trendelenburg's tracheal, 52
Cannon ball for abdominal massage, 524
Capacity of bladder, 593
test of, 607
of stomach, 428
Cardiac massage, 61
paralysis during anesthesia, 60
Carotid artery, infusion of adrenalin and salt solution into, 138
Carrel's method of transfusion, 124
Casper's cystoscope, 653
Catheterization, continuous, of bladder, 639
of Eustachian tubes, 335
Kramer or Binnafont method, 338
Löwenberg method, 335
of female bladder, 635
of male bladder, 628
in presence of hypertrophy of the prostate, 634
in presence of strictures, 633
of ureters, 652, 661
direct view method, 655
indirect view method, 657
Catheter, bicoudé, 630
coudé, 529
Eustachian, 336
female, 635
Gouley's tunneled, 629
Guyon's mandarin coudé, 629
Malecot retention, 637
Nélaton, 629
Pezzer, 637
prostatic, 629
retained, 637
silver, 629
ureteral, 653, 662
wax-tipped, 654, 662
whip, 630
Caustics, application of, to bladder, 627
to ear, 344
to larynx, 377
to nose, 301
to urethra, 573
C. E. general anesthetic mixture, 49
Cerebrospinal fluid, normal, 252
pathological changes in, 252
meningitis, administration of antiserum in, 253
pressure, 252
Cervical plexus, cocainization of, 85
Cervix, dilatation of, 746
scarification of, 734
Chamberlain's intrauterine douche nozzle, 723
Chapin's urine collector, 225
Chetwood's urethral irrigating nozzle, 565
urethroscope, 552
Chloroform, administration of, by drop method, 37
by vapor method, 39
anesthesia, 34
suitable cases for, 35
delayed poisoning from, 63
effects of, on blood, 35

Chloroform inhalers, 35
mortality rate of, 17
physiological action of, 34
Chromic acid, method of fusing on a probe, 303
Clamp, Crile's, 117
Levin's transfusion, 123
Cleansing enemata, 498.
Closed method of administering ether, 32
Clover's ether inhaler, 27
Coakley's transilluminator, 292
Cocain, 71
Bodine's formula for, 72
Schleich formula for, 72
solutions, preparations of, 72
sterilization of, 72
surface application of, 75
Cocainization of the anterior crural nerve 93
tibial nerve, 95
of the auriculotemporal nerve, 83
of the brachial plexus, 86
of the cervical plexus, 85
of the digital nerves, 89
of the external cutaneous nerve, 93
of the frontal nerve, 83
of the genitocrural nerve, 90
of the great auricular nerve, 83
occipital nerve, 83
sciatic nerve, 93
of the iliohypogastric nerve, 90
of the ilioinguinal nerve, 90
of the inferior dental nerve, 84
of the infraorbital nerve, 84
of the intercostal nerve, 86
of the lingual nerve, 85
of the median nerve at the wrist, 88
in the arm, 87
of the mental nerve, 84
of the musculospiral nerve, 87
of the posterior tibial nerve, 95
of the radial nerve, 88
of the small occipital nerve, 83
of the spinal cord, 99
of the superior laryngeal nerve, 85
of the supraorbital nerve, 83
of the temporomalar nerve, 83
of the ulnar nerve at the wrist, 88
in the arm, 87
Collection and preservation of pathological material, 199
of blood for bacteriological examination, 222
Collection of blood for microscopical examination, 217
of discharges and secretions for bacteriological examination, 211
from an abscess cavity, 214
from the eyes, 215
from the nose and accessory sinuses, 214
from the urethra, 215
from the uterus, 216
from the vagina, 216
of feces, 226
of sputum, 224
of stomach contents, 226, 442
of urine, 225
Colon, inflation of, 493, 517
irrigation of, 501
massage of, 522
tube, 498
Composition of the gastric juice, 440
Connell's aspirator, 257
Constipation, electro therapy in, 524
Continuous catheterization of bladder, 636
dilatation of esophageal strictures, 423
of urethral strictures, 590
Coudé catheter, 629
Crile's clamps, 117
method of intraarterial infusion, 138
of transfusion, 119
transfusion cannula, 117
Croup kettle, 380
Cryoscopy of blood, 672
of urine, 672
Cup and ring pessary, 737
Cupped sound, 571
Cupping, 170
dry, 172
wet, 173
Cups for abstracting blood, 171
for passive hyperemia, 189
Curetment, test, 229, 712
Curettage, 751
Curves of urethra, 529
Cystoscope, Albarran's, 653
Bierhoff's, 653
Brenner's, 652
Brown's 652, 653
Buerger's, 653
Casper's, 653
direct view, 652
Elsner's, 652
indirect view, 653
Kelly's female, 615, 661

Cystoscope, Lewis', 627, 652, 653
Luys' open tube, 617
McCarthy's, 653
Nitze's, 611, 653
Otis', 611
Schapira's, 611
Cystoscopic treatment, 627
Cystoscopy in the female, 615
in the male, 610

Davidson atomizer, 299
Dawbarn's method of intraarterial infusion, 139
Deglutible stomach bucket, Einhorn's, 447
electrode, Einhorn's, 472
Deglutition sounds, 405, 437
Delayed chloroform poisoning, 63
Dench's vaporizer, 345
DeVilbiss atomizer, 299
Diastolic blood pressure, 107
determination of, 111
Dieulafoy aspirator, 256
Digital nerves, cocainization of, 88
palpation of anal canal, 480
of nasopharynx, 291
of pelvic organs, 694
of rectum, 480
of uterine cavity, 710
Dilatation, continuous, of esophageal strictures, 423
of urethral strictures, 590
of anus, 480
of cervix, 746
of esophageal strictures, 418
of Eustachian tubes, 347
of female urethra, 559
of rectal strictures, 519
of rectum, 480
of ureteral strictures, 677
of urethral strictures, 579
Diphtheria antitoxin, administration of, 149
after-effects of, 151
Direct applications to the ear, 344
to the larynx, 377
to the nose, 301
to the vagina, 718
laryngoscopy, 364
tracheo-bronchoscopy, 367
lower, 373
upper, 372
view cystoscopes, 652
view method of catheterizing ureters, 655
Double current catheter, 621
rectal irrigator, Bodenhamer's, 503
Kemp's, 503
Tuttle's, 503
uterine irrigator, Fritsch-Bozeman's, 723
Talley's, 724
Douche, hot-air, 196
intrauterine, 723
nasal, 294
stomach, 462
vaginal, 715
Drainage in edema of the lower extremities, 168
Drop method of administering chloroform, 37
ether, 30
of infusing salt solution into rectum, 510
Drum membrane, anatomy of, 319
determination of mobility of, 328
incision of, 349
inspection of, 324
massage of, 348
Dry cupping, 172
inhalations, 383
Duck-bill rectal speculum, 483

Ear, anatomy of, 317
application of caustics to, 344
inspection of, 324
instillations for, 342
speculum, Boucheron's, 324
electric lighted, 324
Gruber's, 324
Toynbee's, 324
syringe, Allport's, 340
Blake's, 340
syringing the, 339
Edema, acupuncture for, 159
of glottis, scarification in, 168
of lower extremities, drainage in, 168
Einhorn's esophagoscope, 412
gastrodiaphane, 449
stomach bucket, 447
douche, 463
electrode, 472
Elastic bands for passive hyperemia, 183
Elbow-joint, exploratory puncture of, 245
Electrotherapy in constipation, 524
in diseases of the stomach, 470
Elsner's cystoscope, 652
Elsberg's method of transfusion, 124
transfusion cannula, 123

Endo- and perineural infiltration, 81
Enemata, cleansing, 498
medicated, 497
nutrient, 514
purgative, 499
saline, 508
Enteroclysis, 501
with double tube, 507
with single tube, 506
Epistaxis, tamponing the nose for, 312
Epsom salt for spinal anesthesia, 100
Erect posture for gynecological examinations, 686
Esmarch bandage for passive hyperemia, 183
inhaler, 26
Esophageal bougies, 406
bougies à boule, 406
lavage, 416
sounds, Billroth's, 421
Schreiber's, 421
strictures, dilatation of, 418
tube, Symonds, 424
Esophagoscope, Einhorn's, 412
Jackson's, 412
Mikulicz's, 412
Esophagoscopy, 412
Esophagus, anatomy of, 403
auscultation of, 405
dilatation of strictures of, 418
intubation of, 423
lavage of, 416
normal constrictions of, 403
palpation of, 405
percussion of, 405
skiagraphy of, 416
Estimation of the urethral length, 550
Ether, administration of, by closed method, 32
by drop method, 30
by semiopen method, 32
by vapor method, 33
anesthesia, 24
suitable cases for, 25
blood changes from, 25
inhalers, 26
mortality from, 17
physiological action of, 24
Ethmoid sinuses, anatomy of, 277
Ethyl chlorid, administration of, 48
anesthesia, 46
suitable cases for, 47
as a local anesthetic, 75
Ethyl chlorid inhalers, 47
mortality from, 17
Eucain B, 72
in spinal anesthesia, 100
Eustachian bougies, 347
catheters, 336
tubes, anatomy of, 321
catheterization of, 335
dilatation of strictures of, 347
inflation of, by catheter, 335
by Politzer's method, 333
by Valsalva's method, 332
with medicated vapors, 345
medication of, 346
Ewald-Boas' test breakfast, 440
Ewald's salol test, 448
Expectoration, albuminous, 262
Experimental polyuria test, Albarran's, 673
Exploratory incision for inspecting the kidney, 675
for palpating the pelvic organs, 712
laparotomy, 456
punctures, 230
of ankle-joint, 246
of elbow-joint, 245
of kidneys, 243.
of knee-joint, 245
of liver, 241
of lungs, 237
of pericardium, 238
of peritoneal cavity, 240
of pleura, 233
of shoulder-joint, 245
of spinal canal, 246
of spleen, 242
Expression of stomach contents, 447
External cutaneous nerve, cocainization of, 92
Extraction of stomach contents by aspiration, 447
Extubation, 391
Extubator, O'Dwyer's, 385

False passages from urethral instrumentation, 590
Feces, collection of, for examination, 226
Female catheter, 635
generative organs, anatomy of, 679
methods of examining, 681
therapeutic measures, 715
urethra, anatomy of, 530
Feeding by gavage, 465
by rectum, 514

Feeding, intubation cases, 390
Filiform bougies, esophageal, 420
urethral, 539, 582
Fingers, local anesthesia in operations on, 88
Fluid, cerebrospinal, normal, 252
pathological variations in, 252
Fluorescein in gastrodiaphany, 450
Formalin sterilizer, 540
Freezing, local anesthesia by, 75
point of blood, 673
of urine, 673
Fritsch-Bozeman douche nozzle, 723
Frontal nerve, cocainization of, 83
sinus, anatomy of, 277
lavage of, 309
probing, 289
skiagraphy of, 294
transillumination of, 292
Functional capacity of the kidneys, determination of, 671
by cryoscopy, 672
experimental polyuria test for, 673
indigo-carmin test for, 672
methylene-blue test for, 672
phloridzin test for, 672
urea test for 672
Fusing chromic acid on a probe, 303
silver nitrate on a probe, 303

Galton's whistle, 330
Gastric juice, composition of, 440
Gastrodiaphany, 448
Gastrodiaphane, Einhorn's, 449
Lynch's, 449
Gastroscope, Jackson's, 451
Mikulicz's, 451
Rosenheim's, 451
Gastroscopy, 450
Gavage, 465
Gehrung's pessary, 737
General anesthesia, 17
accidents during, 56
A. C. E. mixture for, 49
acid intoxication from, 63
after-effects of, 62
after-treatment following, 64
asphyxiation from, 57
Billroth's mixture for, 49
cardiac paralysis during, 60
C. E. mixture for, 49
delayed poisoning from, 63
mixtures for, 49
General anesthesia, mortality from, 17
postoperative palsies following, 63
preparation of patient for, 18
renal complications of, 63
respiratory complications of, 63
paralysis during, 60
Schleich mixture for, 49
stages of, 22
vomiting from, 62
anesthetics, administration of, 17
Genitocrural nerve, cocainization of, 90
Glass catheter, female, 635
test, two, 532
three, 533
Glasses, cupping, for abstracting blood, 171
for passive hyperemia, 189
Goodell speculum, 703
uterine dilators, 747
Gouley tunneled catheter, 629
sound, 582
Great auricular nerve, cocainization of, 83
occipital nerve, cocainization of, 83
sciatic nerve, cocainization of, 93
Gruber's ear specula, 324
Gwathmey's gas and ether inhaler, 44
nitrous oxid gas and oxygen inhaler, 42
vapor apparatus, 28
Gynecological examination, 681
postures, 684
Gynecology, Bier's hyperemic treatment in, 732
Guyon's mandarin coudé catheter, 629

Hahn's tracheal cannula, 52
Hanks' uterine dilators, 747
Hare's formula for artificial serum for infusions, 129
Harris' segregator, 667
Hartmann's tuning forks, 330
vaporizer, 345
Hartwell's method of transfusion, 122
Hayem's formula for artificial serum for infusions, 130
Hays' pharyngoscope, 286
Head, local anesthesia in operations on, 83
passive hyperemia of, 187
lamp, electric, 280
Kirstein's, 365
Hearing tests, 329
Heart massage, 61
Heat vacuum aspirator, Connell's, 257
Hegar's uterine dilators, 747

Hemolysis and transfusion, 116
Hemorrhage, tamponing nose for, 312
Hernia, local anesthesia in operations for, 89
Hewitt's gas and ether inhaler, 44
nitrous oxid gas inhaler, 40
and oxygen inhaler, 41
High tracheotomy, 397
Hodge pessary, 736
Hodge-Smith pessary, 736
Hot air, active hyperemia by, 194
boxes, 195
douche, 196
Hyoscin-morphin anesthesia, 55
Hyperemia, active, 194
passive, 177
by cups, 188
by elastic bands, 183
in diseases of the nose and sinuses, 311
in gynecology, 732
Hypodermic injection of drugs, 144
syringes, 144
Hypodermoclysis, 140
Hydrocele, aspiration and injection of, 270

Iliohypogastric nerve, cocainization of, 90
Ilioinguinal nerve, cocainization of, 90
Illumination for rhinoscopy, 278
Image, laryngeal, 361
rhinoscopic, 284
Improvised tracheotomy tube, 395
Incision, exploratory, for inspecting the kidneys, 675
for palpating the pelvic organs, 712
in diseases of the stomach, 456
of drum membrane, 349
Indigo-carmin test of the functional capacity of kidneys, 672
Inferior dental nerve, cocainization of, 84
Infiltration anesthesia, 76
endo- and perineural, 81
Infiltrator, Matas', 78
Morrow's, 78
Inflation of colon for diagnostic purposes, 493
in intussusception, 517
of middle ear, 332, 345
by Politzer's method, 333
by Valsalva's method, 332
through a catheter, 335
of stomach, 437
with air, 439
with carbonic acid gas, 438
Infraorbital nerve, cocainization of, 84
Infusions of physiological salt solution, 127
intraarterial, 137
intravenous, 130
rectal, 508
by drop method, 510
subcutaneous, 140
Inhalations, dry, 383
steam, 380
Inhaler, Allis' ether, 27, 48
Clover's ether, 27
Bennett's ether, 27
gas, 40
gas and ether, 44
Braun's vapor, 36
Esmarch chloroform, 26, 36, 48
Gwathmey's gas and ether, 44
gas and oxygen, 42
vapor, 28
Hewitt's gas and ether, 44
nitrous oxid gas, 40
nitrous oxid gas and oxygen, 41
Junker's vapor, 36
Pedersen's gas and ether, 44
Schimmelbusch chloroform, 26, 36, 48
Skinner's chloroform, 36
towel, 28, 36
Ware's ethyl chlorid, 48
Injection of air and fluids into the bowels in intussusception, 517
test for urethral pus, 534
Injections, hypodermic, 144
intramuscular, 144
urethral, 560
Inspection of abdomen, 686
of anus, 479
of bladder, 601
through a cystoscope, 610, 615
of drum membrane, 324
of ear, 323
of esophagus through esophagoscope, 412
of kidneys, 645
of larynx by the laryngoscope, 357
of nasopharynx by Hay's pharyngoscope, 286
by rhinoscopic mirror, 283
of nose, 278
of rectum, 479
through proctoscope, 483
of stomach, 430
by means of a gastroscope, 450
of trachea, 357
of urethra in female, 534

Inspection of urethra in the female by the urethroscope, 558
in male, 534
by the urethroscope, 551
of vagina, 692
Instillation syringe, Keyes-Ultzmann, 569, 626
Instillations for bladder, 626
for ear, 342
for urethra, 568
Insufflations for the larynx, 379
for the nose, 303
for the vagina, 719
Insufflator, laryngeal, 380
nasal, 303
Intercostal nerves, cocainization of, 86
Intraarterial infusion of salt solutions, 137
Crile's method, 138
Dawbarn's method, 139
Intramuscular injection of drugs, 144
Intrauterine applications, 727
douche, 723
tampons, 729
Intravenous infusion of salt solutions, 130
Intubation anesthesia, 50
of esophagus, 503
of larynx, 383
tubes, O'Dwyer's, 385
Intubator, O'Dwyer's, 385
Intussusception, injection of air and fluids in, 517
Iodipin test of motor power of stomach, 448
Irrigations, bladder, 620
colonic, 501
ear, 339
intrauterine, 723
nasal, 294
rectal, 501
urethral, 564
vaginal, 715
Irrigator, bladder, 621
double flow rectal, 503
urethral, 565
uterine, 723
Iversen's apparatus for proctoclysis, 511

Jackson's bronchoscope, 368
esophagoscope, 412
gastroscope, 451
laryngoscope, 365
Janeway's sphygmomanometer, 108
Jaw, method of holding forward during anesthesia, 31
Joints, exploratory puncture of, 244
Junker's chloroform inhaler, 36

Kelly's female cystoscope, 616, 661
method of collecting urine from ureter without a ureteral catheter, 665
proctoscope, 484
sigmoidoscope, 484
sphincteroscope, 483
ureteral catheter, 663
searcher, 616, 662
urethral dilator, 558, 617, 662
urethroscope, 558
urine evacuator, 617, 662
Kemp's double flow rectal irrigator, 503
rectal electrode, 525
Kettle, croup, 380
Keyes-Ultzmann instillation syringe, 569, 626
Kidneys, anatomy of, 642
exploratory puncture of, 243
inspection of, 645
palpation of, 646
percussion of, 650
position of, 642
relations of, 643
Killian's bronchoscope, 368
laryngoscope, 365
Kirstein's head light, 365
tongue depressor, 365
Klotz urethroscope, 553
Knee-chest posture for gynecological examinations, 685
for rectal examinations, 478
Knee-joint, exploratory puncture of, 245
Kramer's method of catheterizing Eustachian tubes, 338
Kuhn's mask, 181

Laparotomy, exploratory, 456
Laryngeal image, 361
insufflator, 380
mirror, 358
probe, 374
Laryngoscope, Jackson's, 365
Killian's, 365
Laryngoscopy, 357
direct, 364
Laryngotomy, 396
Larynx, anatomy of, 353
anesthesia of, 85
application of caustics to 377
direct applications for, 377

Larynx, dry inhalations for, 383
inspection of, 357
insufflations for, 380
intubation of, 383
palpation of, by the probe, 374
skiagraphy of, 375
steam inhalations for, 380
Lavage of esophagus, 416
of frontal sinus, 309
of maxillary sinus, 305
of sphenoidal sinus, 311
of stomach, 457
Leech, artificial, 175
Leeching, 174
Length of urethra, estimation of, 550
Leube's test of motor power of stomach, 447
Levin's transfusion clamp, 123
Lewis' operating cystoscope, 627
universal cystoscope, 653
Lingual nerve, cocainization of, 85
Lithotomy position in rectal examinations, 478
Liver, exploratory puncture of, 241
Local anesthesia, 66
advantages and disadvantages of, 67
adrenalin chlorid as an aid to, 73
by endo- and perineural infiltration, 81
by freezing, 75
by infiltration, 76
by surface application of drugs, 75
conduction of operation under, 73
ethyl chlorid in, 75
drugs used for, 71
in hernia operations, 89
in operations on abdomen, 89
on bladder, 76
on eyes, 75
on face, 84
on head, 83
on larynx, 85
on lips, 84
on lower extremity, 92
jaw, 84
on mouth, 85
on neck, 85
on nose, 76
on penis, 91
on rectum, 92
on scalp, 83
on scrotum, 91
on thorax, 86
on tongue, 85
Local anesthesia in operations on upper extremity, 86
on urethra, 76, 91
methods of producing, 70
preparation of patient for, 70
Schleich mixtures for, 72
suitable cases for, 68
anesthetics, 71
application of cocain to mucous membranes, 75
applications to bladder, 627
to ear, 344
to larynx, 377
to nose, 301
to urethra, 573
to uterus, 727
to vagina, 718
Locke's formula for artificial serum for infusions, 130
Low tracheotomy, 400
Löwenberg method of catheterizing the Eustachian tubes, 335
Lower extremity, local anesthesia in operations upon, 92
Lower tracheo-bronchoscopy, 373
Lumbago, acupuncture in, 160
Lumbar anesthesia, 99
puncture, 246
as a means of administering antitoxic sera, 253
Lungs, exploratory puncture of, 237
Luys' open tube cystoscope, 617
segregator, 668
Lynch's gastrodiaphane, 449

Malecot catheter, 637
Manual palpation of rectum, 482
Martin's elastic bandage for passive hyperemia, 183
Massage, auto, 524
cannon ball for, 524
colonic, 522
of drum membrane, 348
of heart, 61
of prostate, 576
of stomach, 468
Matas' massive infiltrator, 78
Maxillary sinus, anatomy of, 276
lavage of, 305
skiagraphy of, 294
transillumination of, 293
McCarthy's cystoscope, 653
Meatome, Otis', 578

Meatotomy, 578
Medicated enemata, 497
  Eustachian bougie, 348
  tampons, 721
Medication, hypodermic, 144
  of Eustachian tubes, 346
  of ureters and renal pelvis, 675
Median nerve, cocainization of, at wrist, 88
    in arm, 87
Membrane, drum, anatomy of, 319
    determination of mobility of, 328
    incision of, 349
    inspection of, 324
    massage of, 348
Mensuration of abdomen, 691
Mental nerve, cocainization of, 84
Method of making a dry blood smear, 220
    fresh blood smear, 219
Method of making a smear culture, 209
      preparation for microscopical examination, 199
        from eyes, 202
        from mouth and pharynx, 201
        from nose, 202
        from urethra, 203
        from uterus, 205
        from vagina, 205
    a stab culture, 209
    a streak culture, 208
  of holding jaw forward during anesthesia 31
  of inoculating culture tubes, 207
Mikulicz's esophagoscope, 412
  gastroscope, 451
Middle ear, anatomy of, 318
    inflation of, 332, 345
      with medicated vapors, 345
Mirror, head, 279
  laryngeal, 358
  rhinoscopic, 280
Mixture, A. C. E., 49
  anesthol, 49
  Billroth's, 49
  C. E., 49
  Schleich general anesthetic, 49
    local anesthetic, 72
Mixtures, anesthetic, 49
Mobility of drum membrane, determination of, 328
Morphin as a preliminary to general anesthesia, 19
    to local anesthesia, 71
Morphin-hyoscin anesthesia, 55
Morrow's infiltrator, 78
Mortality from general anesthetics, 17
Motor functions of the stomach, tests for, 447
Murphy's proctoclysis, 510
  rectal specula, 484
Muscular rheumatism, acupuncture in, 160
Musculospiral nerve, cocainization of, 87

Nares, anterior, 273
  posterior, 273
    digital palpation of, 291
    inspection of, 283
Nasal douche, Bermingham's, 295
  douching, 294
  spraying, 299
  syringing, 297
Nasopharynx, inspection of, 283
    by means of Hays' pharyngoscope, 286
  digital palpation of, 291
Neck band for passive hyperemia, 184
Nélaton catheter, 629
Nerve blocking, 83
Neuritis, acupuncture in, 161
Nirvanin, 72
Nitrous oxid, administration of, 42
    and ether, administration of, 46
      anesthesia, 44
      inhalers, 44
    and oxygen, administration of, 44
      inhalers, 41
    anesthesia, 39
      suitable cases for, 40
    inhalers, 40
    mortality from, 17
    physical properties of, 39
Nitze cystoscope, 611, 653
Normal cerebrospinal fluid, 252
  salt solution, preparation of, 128
      sterilization of, 129
Nose, anatomy of, 273
  application of caustics to, 301
  douching, 294
  inspection of, 278
  insufflations for, 303
  passive hyperemia in disease of, 311
  probing, 288
  spraying, 299
  syringing, 297
  tamponing, 312
Novocain, 72
  in spinal anesthesia, 100
Nutrient enemata, 514

Obstructive hyperemia by the cup, 188
by the elastic band, 183
O'Dwyer's intubation instruments, 384
Ointments, application of, to urethra, 571
Orthoform, 72
Ossicles of ear, 319
Otis meatome, 578
urethrometer, 549
Otoscope, Siegle's, 328
Otoscopy, 324
Oxygen and chloroform anesthesia, 39
and ether anesthesia, 25
and nitrous oxid anesthesia, 44

Palate retractor, White's, 285
Palpation of abdomen, 687
of anus, 480
of bladder, 602
of esophagus, 405
of female urethra, 538
of kidneys, 646
of larynx by the probe, 374
of male urethra, 535
of nose by the probe, 288
of prostate, 536
of rectum, 480
of seminal vesicles, 537
of stomach, 432
of uterus, 696
of vagina, 694
of vulva, 694
Paracentesis abdominis, 265
membranae tympani, 349
pericardii, 263
thoracis, 254
tunicæ vaginalis, 270
Passive hyperemia, 177
by bands, 183
by cups, 188
in diseases of nose and accessory sinuses, 311
in gynecology, 732
of head and neck, 187
of shoulder, 187
of testicles, 188
Pathological changes in cerebrospinal fluid, 252
material, collection and preservation of, 199
Pedersen's gas and ether inhaler, 44
Pelvic massage, 733
organs, anatomy of, 679
bimanual palpation of, 696
digital palpation of, 694
49
Penzoldt and Faber's test of absorption power of stomach, 448
Percussion of abdomen, 689
of bladder, 601
of esophagus, 405
of kidneys, 650
of stomach, 435
Percutaneous application of electricity to colon, 525
to stomach, 472
Pericardicentesis, 238
Pericardium, aspiration of, 263
exploratory puncture of, 238
Peritoneal cavity, aspiration of, 265
exploratory puncture of, 240
Pessary, cup and ring, 737
Gehrung's, 737
Hodge's, 736
Hodge-Smith's, 736
ring, 736
Skene's, 737
stem, 750
therapy, 735
Pezzer retained catheter, 637
Pharyngoscope, Hays', 286
Pharynx, inspection of, 283
Phlebotomy, 161
Phloridzin test for functional capacity of kidneys, 672
Physiological action of chloroform, 34
of ether, 24
of ethyl chlorid, 46
of nitrous oxid, 39
salt solution, infusions of, 127
Pleura, aspiration of, 254
exploratory puncture of, 233
Pleurocentesis, 254
Pneumatic otoscope, 328
proctoscope, Tuttle's, 484
Poisoning, delayed chloroform, 63
Politzer's air bag, 333
method of inflating middle ear, 333
Position of kidneys, 642
of stomach, 427
of uterus, 680
Positions for gynecological examination, 684
for rectal examination, 477
Posterior nares, 273
inspection of, 283
palpation of, 291
rhinoscopic image, 284
rhinoscopy, 283
tibial nerve, cocainization of, 95

Postnasal syringe, 298
Postoperative anesthetic palsies, 63
Potain aspirator, 255
Powder blower, laryngeal, 380
nasal, 303
Sajous, 304
Preparation of cocain solutions, 72
of normal salt solution, 128
of patient for general anesthesia, 18
for gynecological examination, 683
for local anesthesia, 70
for rectal examination, 477
Pressure, cerebrospinal, 252
Probing the accessory sinuses, 289
the larynx, 374
the nose, 288
Proctoclysis, continuous, 510
Proctoscope, Kelly's, 483
Murphy's, 484
Tuttle's, 484
Proctoscopy, 486
Prostate, anatomy of, 530
massage of, 576
palpation of, 536
Prostatic catheter, 629
Pulmonary tuberculosis, Kuhn's mask for, 181
Puncture, exploratory, 230
of joints, 244
of kidneys, 243
of liver, 241
of lungs, 237
of pericardium, 238
of peritoneal cavity, 240
of pleura, 233
of spinal canal, 246
of spleen, 242
lumbar, 246
spinal, 246
venous, 222
Purgative enemata, 499
Psychrophore, 575
Pynchon's vaporizer, 345

Radial nerve, cocainization of, 88
Ransohoff's method of arterial anesthesia, 98
Rectal anesthesia, 53
bougie, Wales', 491, 520
bougie à boule, 491
feeding, 514
infusions of salt solutions, 508
irrigations, 501
irrigator, Bodenhamer's, 503
Rectal irrigator, Kemp's, 503
Tuttle's, 503
palpation of pelvic organs, 702
of ureter, 650
speculum, bivalve, 483
duck bill, 483
fenestrated blade, 483
Kelly's, 483
Murphy's, 484
Sims', 483
Tuttle's, 484
Strictures, dilatation of, 519
Rectum, anatomy of, 474
digital palpation of, 480
examination of, by the bougie, 490
by the bougie à boule, 491
inspection of, 479
local anesthesia in operations on, 92
manual palpation of, 482
probing of, 492
structure of, 475
Regional anesthesia, 70
Relations of kidneys, 643
of vagina, 679
Removal of fragments of tissue for examination, 226
Renal calculi, X-ray in detection of, 674
complications following general anesthesia, 63
Replacement of a retroverted uterus, 738
Residual urine, 609
Respiration, artificial, 58
Respiratory complications following general anesthesia, 63
paralysis during general anesthesia, 60
Retention catheter, Malecot's, 637
Pezzer's, 637
Retroverted uterus, replacement of, 738
Revaccination, 159
Rhinoscopic image, 284
mirror, 280
Rhinoscopy, anterior, 281
posterior, 283
Riegel's test dinner, 440
Ring pessary, 736
Ringer's formula for artificial sera, 129
Riva Rocci sphygmomanometer, 107
Rosenheim's gastroscope, 451

Saline enemata, 508
solution, administration of adrenalin chlorid in, 128
intraarterial infusion of, 137

Saline solution, intravenous infusion of, 130
preparation of, 128
rectal infusion of, 508
sterilization of, 129
subcutaneous infusion of, 140
Salol test for motor power of stomach, 448
Sajous' insufflator, 304
Saxon's apparatus for proctoclysis, 511
Scarification, 166
of cervix, 734
of glottis, 168
of larynx, 168
Scarificator, automatic, 166
Schimmelbusch inhaler, 26, 36, 48
Schleich's cocain solutions for local anesthesia, 72
general anesthetic mixture, 49
Sciatic nerve, cocainization of, 93
Sciatica, acupuncture in, 161
Scopolamin-morphin anesthesia, 55
Scrotum, local anesthesia in operations upon, 91
Searcher, stone, 604
Segregation of urine, 667
Segregator, Harris', 667
Luys', 668
Seminal vesicles, massage of, 537, 576
palpation of, 537
Semiopen method of administering ether, 32
Shock, adrenalin in, 128
Shoulder, passive hyperemia of, 187
Shoulder-joint, exploratory puncture of, 245
Siegle's otoscope, 328
Sigmoidoscope, Kelly's, 484
Murphy's, 484
Tuttle's, 484
Silver nitrate, method of fusing on a probe, 303
prostatic catheter, 629
Sims' position, 477, 684
rectal speculum, 483
vaginal speculum, 703
Sinus, ethmoid, anatomy of, 277
frontal, anatomy of, 277
lavage of, 309
probing, 289
skiagraphy of, 294
transillumination of, 292
maxillary, anatomy of, 276
lavage of, 305
skiagraphy of, 294
transillumination of, 293
Sinus, sphenoidal, anatomy of, 277
lavage of, 311
probing, 290
Sinuses, accessory, 276
Skene's pessary, 737
Skiagraphy of accessory sinuses, 294
of esophagus, 416
of larynx, 375
of renal calculi, 674
of stomach, 456
of ureteral calculi, 674
of vesical calculi, 620
Skinner's mask, 36
Small occipital nerve, cocainization of, 83
Smear, blood, method of making, 218
culture, method of making, 209
preparation for microscopical examination, method of making, 199
from eyes, 202
from mouth and pharynx, 201
from nose, 202
from urethra, 203
from uterus, 205
from vagina, 205
Sounding the bladder, 604
the uterus, 708
Sounds, Billroth's, 421
bladder, 604
cupped, 571
esophageal, 406, 420
Schreiber's, 421
ureteral, 663
wax-tipped, 663
urethral, 539, 581
uterine, 708
Southey's trocars and cannulæ, 169
Specula, bladder, Kelly's, 615, 661
ear, Boucheron's 324
electric lighted, 324
Gruber's, 324
Siegle's, 328
Toynbee's, 324
nasal, Myles', 280
rectal, Kelly's, 483
Murphy's, 484
Sims', 483
Tuttle's, 484
vaginal, Goodell's, 703
Sims', 703
Sphenoidal sinus, anatomy of, 277
lavage of, 311
probing, 290

Sphincteroscope, Kelly's, 483
Murphy's, 484
Sphygmomanometer, Janeway's, 108
Riva Rocci, 107
Stanton's, 108
Sphygmomanometry, 106
Spinal anesthesia, 99
canal, puncture of, 246
cord, cocainization of, 99
Splashing sounds in stomach, 437
Spleen, exploratory puncture of, 242
Sprays, laryngeal, 376
nasal, 299
Sputum, method of collecting, 224
Squatting posture in gynecological examinations, 686
in rectal examinations, 479
Stab cultures, method of making, 209
Stages of anesthesia, 22
Stanton's sphygmomanometer, 108
Steam inhalations, 380
Stem pessary, 750
Sterilization of cocain solutions, 72
of saline solutions, 129
of urethral instruments, 539
Sterilizer, formalin, 540
Stethoscope, aural, 333
Stomach, absorption power of, Penzoldt and Faber's test of, 448
anatomy of, 427
auscultation of, 436
bucket, Einhorn's, 447
capacity, 428
contents, collection of, 226, 440
composition of, 440
extraction of, by aspiration, 447
by expression, 447
douche, Einhorn's, 463
douching, 462
electrode, Bardet's, 472
Einhorn's, 472
Stockton's, 472
Wegele's, 472
electrotherapy in diseases of, 470
inflation of, by air, 439
by carbonic acid gas, 438
lavage of, 457
massage of, 468
motor power of, Ewald's test of, 448
iodipin test of, 448
Leube's test of, 447
palpation of, 432
percussion of, 435
Stomach, position of, 427
skiagraphy of, 456
succussion sounds in, 437
transillumination of, 448
tube, 443, 458
Stovain, 72
in spinal anesthesia, 100
Streak culture, method of making, 208
Strictures of esophagus, dilatation of, 418
of rectum, dilatation of, 519
of ureter, dilatation of, 677
of urethra, dilatation of, 579
Subarachnoid anesthesia, 99
Subcutaneous drainage in edema, 168
saline infusion, 140
Succussion sounds in stomach, 437
Suction cups for passive hyperemia, 189
Suitable cases for chloroform anesthesia, 35
for ether anesthesia, 25
for ethyl chlorid anesthesia, 47
for general anesthetic mixtures, 50
for local anesthesia, 68
for nitrous oxid, anesthesia, 40
Superior laryngeal nerve, cocainization of, 85
Supplies, anesthetist's, 22
Supraorbital nerve, cocainization of, 83
Surface application of local anesthetics, 75
Symond's esophageal tube, 424
Syphonage aspirator, 258
Syringes, antitoxin, 150
aspirating, 231
ear, 340
hypodermic, 144
nasal, 298
urethral, 561, 569, 574
Systolic blood pressure, 106
Szumann's formula for artificial sera for infusion, 130

Talley's intrauterine douche nozzle, 724
Tampon, medicated, 721
uterine, 729
vaginal, 719
Tamponing nose for control of hemorrhage, 312
Temporomalar nerve, cocainization of, 83
Terminal anesthesia, 71
Test, Albarran's experimental polyuria, 673
breakfast, Ewald-Boas', 440
curetment, 229, 712
dinner, Riegel's, 440

Test, Ewald's, of motor power of stomach, 448
excisions, 228, 712
for absorption from bladder, 609
for perception of musical notes, 331
indigo-carmin, for functional capacity of kidneys, 672
injection, for urethral pus, 534
iodipin, of motor function of stomach, 448
Leube's, of motor function of stomach, 447
meals, 440
methylene-blue, for functional capacity of kidneys, 672
of absorption power of stomach, 448
of acuteness of hearing, 330
of bladder capacity, 607
of functional capacity of kidneys, 671
of motor power of stomach, 447
of residual urine, 609
phloridzin, of functional capacity of kidneys, 672
Rinnè's, for deafness, 331
salol, of motor power of stomach, 448
three glass, for urethral pus, 533
two glass, for urethral pus, 532
urea, for functional capacity of kidneys, 672
voice, of hearing, 330
watch, of hearing, 330
Weber's, for deafness, 331
Testicles, passive hyperemia of, by elastic band, 188
Tetanus antitoxin, administration of, 253
Tomasoli's urethral ointment applicator, 571
Tongue depressor, Kirstein's, 365
Towel cone, 28, 36
Toynbee's aural specula, 324
Trachea, anatomy of, 355
inspection of, 357
Tracheal anesthesia, 52
cannula, Hahn's, 52
Trendelenburg's, 52
Tracheo-bronchoscopy, lower, 373
upper, 372
Tracheoscopy, 357
Tracheotomy, high, 397
low, 400
tubes, 394
Transfusion cannula, Brewer's, 122
Crile's, 117
Transfusion cannula, Elsberg's, 123
Levin's, 123
Buerger's, 117
of blood, Brewer's method, 122
Carrel's method, 124
Crile's method, 119
Elsberg's, method, 124
Hartwell's method, 122
Transillumination of frontal sinus, 292
of maxillary sinus, 293
of stomach, 448
Transilluminator, Coakley's, 292
Trendelenburg tracheal cannula, 52
Trivalve vaginal speculum, 703
Trocar and cannula for aspirating, 255, 256
Southey's, 169
Tropacocain, 72
in spinal anesthesia, 100
Tube, colon, 498
for esophageal lavage, Boas', 416
rectal, 498
stomach, 443, 458
Tubes, intubation, 385
tracheotomy, 394
Tunica vaginalis, aspiration of, 270
Tuning forks, Hartmann's, 330
Tuttle's protoscope, 484
rectal irrigator, 503

Ulnar nerve, cocainization of, at wrist, 88
in arm, 87
Upper extremity, local anesthesia in operations on, 86
Upper tracheo-bronchoscopy, 352
Urea test of functional capacity of kidneys, 672
Ureteral calculi, detection of, by X-ray, 674
catheter, flexible, 662
metal, 663
wax-tipped, 654, 662
catheterization in the female, 661
in the male. 652
sound, 663
wax-tipped, 663
stricture, dilatation of, 677
Ureters, anatomy of, 644
catheterization of, 652, 661
course of, 644
lavage of, 675
medication of, 675
palpation of, 648
Urethra, anatomy of, 527
application of caustics to, 573

Urethra, application of ointments to, 571
caliber of, 529
collecting discharges from, for bacteriological examination, 215
for microscopical examination, 203
curves of, 529
estimation of length of, 550
false passages of, from instrumentation, 590
inspection of, 534
local anesthesia in operation upon, 76, 91
palpation of, 535
sounding of, 538
strictures of, dilatation of, 579
Urethral bougies, 539, 581
à boule, 547
curet, 574
dilator, Kelly's, 558, 617
fever, 589
filiforms, 539, 582
injections, 560
instillations, 568
Urethral irrigating nozzle, Chetwood's, 565
irrigations, 564
knife, 574
snare, 575
sounds, blunt, 539
conical, 581
cupped, 571
double taper, 581
strictures, dilatation of, 579
syringes, 561, 569, 574
Urethrometer, Otis', 549
Urethrometry, 549
Urethroscope, Chetwood's, 552
Kelly's, 558
Klotz's, 553
Swinburne's, 552
Urethroscopic treatment, 572
Urethroscopy in the female, 558
in the male, 551
Urinalysis in bladder diseases, 596
in cases for general anesthesia, 20
in kidney diseases, 596, 651
Urine, albumin in, significance of, 598
blood in, significance of, 599
collection of, for examination, 224
from infants, 225
in presence of incontinence, 225
collector, Chapin's, 225
color of, 598
cryoscopy of, 672
Urine, estimating the quantity of, for twenty-four hours, 225
the residual, 609
evacuator, Kelly's, 617, 662
freezing-point of, 673
odor of, 597
pus in, significance of, 600
quantity of, passed in twenty-four hours, 597
reaction of, 598
specific gravity of, 597
transparency of, 598
Uterine dilators, Goodell's, 747
Hanks', 747
Hegar's, 747
douche, 723
nozzle, Chamberlain's, 723
Fritsch-Bozeman's, 723
Talley's, 724
sound, 708
tampon, 730
Uterus, anatomy of, 679
applications to, 727
collecting discharges from, for bacteriological examination, 216
for microscopical examination, 205
curettage of, 751
digital exploration of, 710
dilatation of, 746
inspection of, 704
palpation of, 696
position of, 680
sounding of, 708
tamponing, 729

Vaccination, 153
Vagina, anatomy of, 679
application of caustics to, 718
of powders to, 719
collection of discharges from, for bacteriological examination, 216
for microscopical examination, 205.
inspection of, 692, 703
palpation of, 694
relations of, 679
Vaginal douche, 715
nozzle, 716
inspection of bladder, 601
irrigations, 715
palpation of ureters, 648
speculum, bivalve, 703
Goodell's, 703
Sims', 703

Vaginal speculum, trivalve, 703
tampon, 719
medicated, 721
Valentine's irrigator, 565
Valsalva's method of inflating middle ear, 332
Vapor method of administering chloroform, 39
ether, 33
Vaporizer, Dench's, 345
Hartmann's, 345
Pynchon's, 345
Venesection, 161
Venous anesthesia, 95
puncture, 222
Vomiting after anesthesia, 62
Vomitus, blood in, 429
Von Hacker's method of dilating esophageal strictures, 422
Leyden's esophageal tubes, 424
Mikulicz's esophagoscope, 412
gastroscope, 451

Wales' bougies, 490, 520
Ware's ethyl chlorid inhaler, 48
Watch test for hearing, 330
Wax-tipped ureteral catheter, 654, 662
sound, 663
Weber's test for deafness, 331
Wet cupping, 173
Whip catheter, 629
Whistle, Galton's, 330
Whitall Tatum atomizer, 299
White's palate retractor, 285

X-ray examination of accessory sinuses, 294
of esophagus, 416
of larynx, 375
of stomach, 456
in detection of renal calculi, 674
of ureteral calculi, 674
of vesical calculi, 620

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